THE CHARACTERISTICS AND BEHAVIOUR OF EFFECTIVE AND INEFFECTIVE MANAGERS

by

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Dedicated to Liz, Mike, Lucy, Mackenzie and Alice

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ABSTRACT

Recent reviews of the management literature have expressed concern over the lack of attention to the issue of effectiveness. This study addresses this deficiency by describing the characteristics and behaviours of *effective* versus *ineffective* managers in a large New Zealand public sector organisation (the Department of Social Welfare). Repertory Grid interviews were conducted with 89 respondents in four offices of the organisation. A panel of judges sorted the constructs into a questionnaire which was administered to a further 365 respondents. Analysis of the questionnaire data reduced the 170 items into 20 scales descriptive of the characteristics and behaviour of *most* and *least effective* managers in the Department. Factor analysis of the scales revealed a three factor structure, suggesting that effective managers require ability in the conceptual, interpersonal and technical areas. Both the scales and the factors demonstrated a high degree of interaction, lending support to previous research findings that emphasize the holistic, and interactive nature of managerial work. Significant variations in emphasis on the scales and factors were apparent between lower and more senior level respondents. The thesis concludes by considering the implications of these findings for management education and development and recommending avenues for further research.

CHAPTER ONE

OVERVIEW

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the thesis. It outlines why it was undertaken, describes the key steps in the research and overviews the thesis structure. It is hoped it will clarify the broad purposes of the thesis and provide a guide to subsequent reading.

WHY STUDY MANAGEMENT EFFECTIVENESS?

The institution of management has become one of the most influential social forces of the twentieth century. Most of the goods and services we consume and the jobs we perform, fall under the direction of managers. As a consequence, managers have a crucial impact on our happiness and wellbeing as individuals, families and societies. New Zealand, in the 1980's, has witnessed an extraordinary rise in the power and veneration of managers. This is evident, for example, in the numerical increase in the numbers of managerial positions, in the rise of what Jonathan Boston (1991, p.9) calls, "the managerialist revolution", in the size of Chief Executive remuneration packages (Loomis 1982,

Verespej 1989), in the rise and influence of bodies such as the Business Round Table, and in the growth of Masters of Business Administration programmes. Through the 1980's, New Zealand has also witnessed a substantial increase in concentrations of power and ownership in a small number of large New Zealand organisations led by business managers (Hamilton 1991). Clearly this is an institution worthy of serious academic study and inquiry.

Curiously, the growth of management as a social institution, has not been accompanied by a similar growth in our understanding of managerial work. This is most apparent in the dearth of research on managerial effectiveness. While there is a huge research literature on the *what* and *how* of what managers do, there is very little written on what *effective* managers do. Most of the reported research makes no attempt to measure the performance of the managers being studied, or to test the effectiveness of their activities, in terms of desired outcomes. Three recent major reviews of the management literature (Martinko and Gardner 1985, Hales 1986, Stewart 1989), express concern about this this deficiency. All three emphasise the need for more research specifically on the characteristics and behaviours of *effective* managers.

The lack of understanding of managerial effectiveness has not impeded the growth of the management development

industry. The training and development of managers has become a billion dollar international industry. In New Zealand demand for consultancy services in this field, escalated through the 1980's, particularly in the rapidly changing public sector. In the universities, this same growth has been echoed in the development and growth of the Master of Business Administration degree (MBA). It is perhaps symptomatic of our lack of understanding of effective management, that the MBA has come under intense criticism over the last twenty years. Critics of the MBA, such as Livingston (1971), Hayes and Abernathy (1980), Leavitt (1983) and laterly Mintzberg (1989) argue rather persuasively, that MBA programmes are actually reducing, rather than augmenting, the effectiveness of U.S managers. Some of these critics go so far as to suggest, that the MBA process in the U.S.A, with its strong emphasis on rational quantitative approaches, is undermining the organisational competitiveness of that nation. Our New Zealand universities cannot claim exemption from such criticisms, as our MBA offerings in many cases replicate those of overseas programmes.

These issues provided the context of this research. While the criticisms of the MBA process are the subject of debate, they created sufficient unease to warrant a response on our part. In a decade which witnessed a great increase in demand for management development and education, we did not

* Use of the term 'we' does not imply multiple authorship

want to be in a position of offering irrelevant or incorrect material. As management educators, our concern was to learn about specifically *effective* and *ineffective* management in a changing New Zealand society. The hope was that we could then translate that understanding into a more meaningful teaching offering.

FINDING A RESEARCH SETTING

In 1984 the new Labour Government precipitated a period of substantial change for New Zealand organisations. New Zealand society since that time, has experienced a level of change perhaps unprecedented in its history. This change impacted heavily on public sector organisations. These organisations were shaken from the quiet, secure, bureaucratised mode of operation, which had characterised their activity for decades, into an era of restructuring, redundancy, accountability and performance. It is not surprising therefore, that we were asked in late 1985, to assist the Department of Social Welfare in the development of its managers. This project required a substantial training needs analysis and provided an ideal opportunity to pursue our research interest in management effectiveness. The Department of Social Welfare is a large public sector organisation which, in 1985, employed around 6000 staff. The Department has offices all over the country, working in three main service areas, namely Benefits and Pensions,

Social Work and Administration. Our brief, was to explore the training needs of managers at supervisory, middle and senior management levels.

RESEARCH APPROACH

Literature Review

The study commenced with a thorough review of the literature. Our purpose here was to learn what was already known about management effectiveness and find a point of departure for the study. As we have mentioned above, we found that very little work had actually been done in this area. This finding confirmed the need for further research. **The literature review is presented in chapter two of this thesis.** Out of the literature review, we developed the following research question as a focus of the study; **"What are the characteristics and behaviours of effective versus ineffective managers and how do these characteristics and behaviours vary between different management levels?"**

Repertory Grid Technique

In conducting the interviews we used an approach called the *Repertory Grid Technique*. This technique provided an important foundation for the research. We adopted the technique mainly for its capacity to minimise observer bias.

It proved to be an exceptionally powerful interview technique which revealed a wealth of interesting data. **The Repertory Grid Technique is described in detail in chapter three.**

Data Gathering

We commenced our data gathering with a series of interviews, with managerial and non-managerial staff, in the Manukau, Hamilton, Nelson and Christchurch offices of the Department. The spread of offices was designed to produce a sample which would be as representative as possible of the total Department. Most of the interviews were conducted by the author and took one to two hours to complete. In all, we conducted 89 interviews, 88 of which proved usable. The interview respondents were asked to differentiate between *effective* and *ineffective* managers in the Department. Their responses were recorded in the form of bi-polar constructs, which differentiated the effective and ineffective managers, in the interview comparison. The following is an example of one of these constructs;

Visible; walks the floor and spends time with staff.	---------	Seen infrequently by staff; less visible.

Over three hundred of these constructs were generated in the interviews. The constructs provided an important data source in themselves. In addition they were used to form a questionnaire, which was used to gather additional data from a larger sample of the Department's staff. A group of six judges sorted the interview constructs into twenty-one initial logical categories, which were used in the questionnaire development process. A final sorting process, produced a questionnaire with 170 items all comprised of constructs generated in the Repertory Grid interview process. The questionnaire was presented to respondents in two identical sections, each with 170 items. On one section they were requested to rate the *least* effective manager they knew at a designated level and on the next, the *most* effective manager.

The questionnaires were administered by the author, to staff in the same four offices in which the interviews had been conducted. By visiting the offices to distribute the questionnaires and personally following up on the respondents, we were able to get a very high level of response (greater than 80%) from the staff in those offices. The sample was strenghtened by a mail survey to a further 60 respondents. These respondents were followed up by telephone, yielding a mail survey response rate of 63%. In all, usable responses were recieved from 365 staff in both managerial and non-managerial levels. These responses

returned a total of 730 questionnaires, half describing *most effective* managers at various levels and half describing *least effective* managers. The data gathering phase was exhaustive and exhausting. It took place over two years during 1986 and 1987. **The data gathering phase of the research is detailed in chapter four.**

Describing the Characteristics and Behaviours of Most and Least Effective Managers

It was clearly not feasible to separately analyse the responses to each of the 170 questionnaire items. Some form of item reduction was therefore necessary. Beginning with the categories developed previously by the six judges, the 170 questionnaire items were assembled into twenty logical categories. Using correlation analyses and measures of inter-item correlation, we reduced the 170 questionnaire items into twenty robust scales. These scales provided an excellent description of the characteristics and behaviours of both effective and ineffective managers in the Department. They covered areas such as *team building, consultation, overview*, and *innovation*. Examples of each of the characteristic and behavioural categories were obtained from the interview data, to round out the picture. **The scales and the procedure used in developing them are described in chapter five.**

Factor Analysis

We used factor analysis to further reduce and model the twenty scale categories. We identified a three factor structure which described three broad abilities required to manage effectively in the Department. These were conceptual ability, interpersonal ability and technical ability. The conceptual ability factor fell into two logical sub-categories, namely intuitive and analytical ability. **The factors and the procedure used in identifying them are described in chapter six.**

Exploring Variations Between Management Levels

The scales and the factors were then used to explore differences in the way *effective* and *ineffective* management was construed by respondents at the non-managerial, supervisory, middle and senior management levels. Firstly, we used the interview data, which was content analysed using the twenty scale descriptors. A count was made of the number of times each of the scales had been referenced by non-managerial, supervisory, middle and senior management respondents. We used this information to compare the relative emphasis on the scales by interview respondents at each of the management levels. For the questionnaire data, we calculated the mean scores given to each of the scales

and factors by non-managerial, supervisory, middle and senior management respondents. This enabled us to explore the patterns and significance of variations in emphasis between the four levels. **The procedures used and the results of this part of the study are detailed in chapter seven.**

The Implications of Our Findings for Management Development

The research described in the first seven chapters indicates that managerial effectiveness (in addition to analytical and technical ability) is heavily reliant on interpersonal and intuitive ability. Overall, the findings highlight the deficiencies of developmental processes that over-emphasize (as claimed by critics of the MBA) rational, analytic approaches to management. What emerges is a model of managerial effectiveness based on interpersonal ability but requiring an additional balance of intuitive, analytical and technical abilities. This finding suggests the need for an MBA process that provides for the development of the individual's interpersonal and intuitive skills and insights, as well as catering to more conventional technical and analytic development. **Chapter eight reviews the main findings of the study and details their implications for management development at the MBA level.**

CONCLUSION

Overall, we feel that the study is successful in addressing the research question, in that it provides a lucid description of the characteristics and behaviours of effective versus ineffective managers. It has also been successful in describing variations in emphasis on those characteristics and behaviours between management levels. Its findings have spurred us into ongoing research in the area and have made a significant contribution to our efforts as management development professionals. We hope that the thesis will prove of interest to the reader and that its findings will make a worthy contribution to an area of understanding that has been, until recently, largely neglected by academic researchers.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

The growth of management as a social institution is one of the more notable phenomena of the twentieth century (Burnham 1941, Chandler 1977, Kanter 1977, Kotter 1982, Meyer and Zucker 1989). In the West individual *hero-managers* have come to assume an almost totemistic quality (Meindl, Ehrlich and Dukerich 1985). In New Zealand, as in most Western nations, managers are ascribed responsibility (with its commensurate payment packages) for the material destiny of large sectors of our society. Chandler's (1977, p.4) observation that "rarely in the history of the world has an institution grown to be so important in so short a time", seems fully justified.

In the face of the growing veneration of the management institution there is evidence that the influence of individual managers has been overstated (Gamson and Scotch 1964, Eitzen and Yetman 1972, Lieberson and O'Connor 1972, Pfeffer 1977, Salancik and Pfeffer 1977, Pfeffer and Salancik 1978, Meindl *et al* 1985, Williams, Chapman, Findlay and Tuggle 1990). A related tendency has been to abstract managers from the social, environmental and institutional

constraints that limit their influence and impact on their behaviour (Willmott 1984, Stewart 1982, Barnes and Kriger 1986, Hosking and Fineman 1990, Martinko and Gardner 1990).

While there are clear constraints on the potential contributions of managers there is evidence that management does matter, and that it accounts for a significant amount of the variance in organisation outcomes (House and Baetz 1979, Weiner and Mahoney 1981, Smith, Carson and Alexander 1984, High and Achilles 1986). These findings are supported by most of the studies that attempt to ground managerial behaviour in empirically determined measures of performance (see for example Burgoyne and Stuart 1976, Kotter 1982, Luthans, Rosenkrantz and Hennessey 1985).

These studies indicate "that managerial behaviour is related to effective organizational performance" (Martinko and Gardner 1990, p.331). Consequently some individual managers will have a more positive impact on their organisations than others. From this we may advance the proposition, outlined by Martinko and Gardner (1990, p.331) that "there are differences in the behaviours of highly effective and less effective managers". This is a common sense proposition that underpins most management theory (Lewin and Minton 1986).

Surprisingly, the managerial research literature provides little understanding of the behaviours and/or characteristics of specifically *effective* or *ineffective* managers. We have a very substantial literature on managerial practise but very little that attempts to distinguish between effective and ineffective practise. The definition of specifically effective versus ineffective management is one of the most important and most neglected areas of managerial research (Smith *et al* 1984, Martinko and Gardner 1985, Hales 1986, Stewart 1989).

This thesis seeks to make a contribution in this area. It addresses the following research question; **"What are the characteristics and behaviours of effective versus ineffective managers and how do these characteristics and behaviours vary between different managerial levels."**

The term *characteristics* refers to the personal qualities and traits of the manager. These include intelligence, aptitudes, knowledge, values, temperament and personality characteristics. The term *behaviour* refers to the way managers conduct themselves in their observed actions towards others and in their responses to various job situations. The inclusion of managerial characteristics in the research question acknowledges the fact that there is more to managerial work than just observable managerial behaviour (Hales 1986).

The issues explored in this chapter relate to the research question. We first address the question "What is a manager?" by defining the term *manager* and describing the defining characteristics of managerial work. Secondly we ask the question "What constitutes *effective* versus *ineffective* management?" We discuss current literature in this area and then look at more specific definitional and measurement issues. Finally we address the question "How do the characteristics and behaviours of effective managers vary across different managerial levels?"

WHAT IS A MANAGER?

Definitions of the Term "Manager"

The Oxford English Dictionary (1989, p.294) defines a manager as "one who manages...a person, or one of a body of persons, responsible for the general working of a public institution". This definition acknowledges the specific responsibility held by the manager "for the operation of a discrete organisational unit" (Hales 1986, p.109). It implies that the manager will be vested with formal authority to run the unit and will in turn be held accountable to some higher level authority.

These concepts are embodied in the definition of Stewart (1976, p.4) that a manager is "anyone above a certain level,

roughly above foreman whether...in control of staff or not". Such a nominalist definition provides a realistic starting point for research and has been widely adopted by management researchers (Hales 1986). It has obvious limitations however, given the "diversity in the composition of managerial work" (Hales 1986, p.107).

The most serious limitation of this definition is its failure to recognise the manager's need to achieve "results through other people" (Heller 1972, in Stewart 1986, p.11). As implied in the dictionary definition the manager has responsibility, authority and accountability to do some things him/herself. The manager is further distinguished in that "being assigned more work than he can do, [he] is authorized to get some of that work done by others for whose work he is in turn accountable" (Jaques 1976, p.64).

In summary we may define a manager as a person, usually titled *manager*, who has responsibility, authority and accountability for a discrete group of people charged with achieving a specific set of tasks and objectives. This embodies distinct responsibilities which the manager has to fulfil directly. It also implies authority and the need to get other people to do things for which the manager remains finally accountable. As noted by Hales (1986, p.110) this implies "a crucial distinction, within the generic term 'managerial work', between what managers *themselves* do and

what managers have to ensure *others* do". Both are essential components of any definition of the term manager.

"What Do Managers Do?" Features of the Content and Process of Managerial Work

Further definition can be given to the term manager by examining what managers do in fulfilling their responsibilities. The work of the manager appears to have specific content and process features by which it may be distinguished from other social functions. We will employ Whitley's (1985, p.344,345) definition, which describes *content* as "the common behaviours managers engage in as they carry out their job...responsibilities" and *process* as the "characteristics (e.g., such as duration of activity, mode of communications, mode of contacts) found among managerial jobs". For example, planning, budgeting and selling are *content* features. The hours worked and the patterns of communication used in pursuing those activities are *process* features.

There is only "moderate agreement" between findings on work content (Whitely 1985, p.344). Hales (1986, p.93) in a major review of the literature refers to a level of "discontinuity, even inconsistency" in these findings. The research findings on work process are more consistent, with the core findings remaining constant across "studies

conducted in different countries and at different time periods" (Whitely 1985, p.345). The following features are representative of the key findings in this area (see Hales 1986 and Stewart 1989 for recent reviews).

Content Features

1. The content (and process) of managerial work varies across management levels, job types, organisations, environments and cultures (Burns 1957, Dubin and Spray 1964, Horne and Lupton 1965, Nath 1968, Child and Ellis 1973, Mintzberg 1973, Boyatzis 1982, Stewart 1982, 1988, Pavett and Lau 1983). Work content and process can also vary significantly between different managers performing identical jobs (Stewart 1976,1988, Stewart, Smith, Blake and Wingate 1980).

2. There is substantial choice available to the manager in both what is done and how (Stewart 1976, 1982, 1988, Stewart *et al* 1980). The observational studies of Dalton (1959) and Sayles (1964) for example, both report attempts by managers to enhance their jobs by altering their content. In many instances the level of choice is such that a key part of the manager's work lies in defining the meaning of their particular job (Gowler and Legge 1983).

3. Managerial jobs require technical/specialist and more general managerial skills (Hales 1986). Managers need both technical understanding and the ability to balance technical/specialist with more generalist managerial roles (Kotter 1982, Dakin and Hamilton 1986).

4. Despite criticism (Braybrooke 1964, Mintzberg 1990) the classical functions (see Gulick 1937, Fayol 1949) still have validity in terms of the tasks they describe. More recent research tends to confirm that managers do plan, organise, command, coordinate and control (see Carroll and Gillen 1987 for a review of this issue). The classical writers however, imply a work process which is unrealistic. Managers in practise plan, organise, command, coordinate and control in ways vastly different to those implied by the classical writers (Kotter 1982).

A number of the later content listings can be seen as a more dynamic conceptualisation of the classical functions. As noted by Hales (1986, p.95) Kotter's task listing, along with those of Sayles (1964) Mintzberg (1973) and Stewart (1976, 1986, 1988) "all provide fresh insights and subtleties to the tasks of 'planning', 'co-ordinating' and 'commanding'".

5. Managerial work has a strong informal and political dimension not accounted for by the classical writers (Dalton

1959, Fletcher 1973, Stewart 1983, Luthans *et al* 1985, Hales 1986, Hosking and Fineman 1990). Managers spend a substantial amount of their time "accounting for and explaining what they do" in informal and political interactions (Hales 1986, p.104).

6. More recent research places a greater emphasis on the development of external contacts, than was the case with the classical prescriptions (see for example Hemphill 1959, Mahoney, Jerdee and Carroll 1965, Tornow and Pinto 1976, Dakin, Hamilton, Cammock and Gimpl 1984).

7. The last fifteen years has seen an increasing emphasis on change and innovation. The *leadership* literature is a good example of this developing emphasis (see for example Zaleznik 1977, 1989, Adair 1983, Bennis and Nanus 1985, Bass 1985, 1988, Kouzes and Posner 1987, Kotter 1988, 1990, Bennis 1989).

8. The key tasks of the manager seem to be most generalizable in the form suggested by Kotter (1982, 1988). That is that the manager leads the organisation by generating and expressing an idea of where the organisation needs to be going (*agenda building*). He/she liaises with networks of people and influences them to help in implementing those ideas (*networking*). Finally, the manager ensures that the agenda items are implemented through a

variety of control, influence and disturbance handling tactics (*execution*).

Process Features

1. Managers, particularly at chief executive levels, work long hours. Carlson (1951) found that the directors in his study worked between 8.5 and 11.5 hours a day. The general managers in Kotter's study worked an average of nearly 60 hours per week. The work of chief executives extends beyond the office into home and social environments (Elliot 1959) and dominates their thinking, even when they are not physically working (Mintzberg 1973, Carroll and Gillen 1987).

Managers at lower levels work shorter but still substantial hours (Burns 1957, Horne and Lupton 1965). The middle managers in Horne and Lupton's (1965) study, for example, worked around 44 hours per week. The hours of work vary between different organisations, work types and countries (Stewart 1988).

2. Managers deal with large amounts of work comprised of diverse work demands. The work process is brief, intense, fragmented and highly demanding (Carlson 1951, Guest 1956, Dubin and Spray 1964, Mintzberg 1973, Kotter 1982, Cox and Cooper 1988, Stewart 1988). Most managerial time is taken

up with day-to-day crises, interruptions and ad-hoc problem solving (Hales 1986, Martinko and Gardner 1990). Guest's (1956) study of foremen, for example, found that they were involved in between 237 and 1073 separate incidents daily.

The pressure of work is such that even very senior managers are unable to spend much time on formal planning (Hales 1986, Stewart 1989). As a consequence managers emerge as "intuitive responders rather than strategic planners" (Stewart 1982, p.90).

3. Managerial work is very much a social process (Hosking and Fineman 1990). Verbal interaction occupies between "two thirds and four fifths" (Hales 1986, p.98) of the manager's time (Burns 1954, 1957, Guest 1956, Horne and Lupton 1965, Mintzberg 1973, 1989, 1990, Stewart 1976, 1988, Fry, Srivstva and Jonas 1987, Jonas 1987). The exact proportion, pattern and difficulty of verbal contacts varies between jobs (Dubin and Spray 1964, Kelly 1964, Mintzberg 1973, Stewart 1976, Hales 1986). Although the manager's interactions may range across hundreds or even thousands of contacts (Kotter 1982) the majority of interactions are lateral (Burns 1957, Dubin and Spray 1964, Horne and Lupton 1965, Mintzberg 1973, Stewart 1976, Hales 1986).

Much of this interaction involves the manager in attempts to influence other people to do things, through brief face to

face conversations (Hales 1986). The manager has less direct power, in these relationships, than is commonly supposed (Sayles 1979, Kotter 1982).

Written communication, even in the form of *hard* information such as reports and computer print-outs, receives less attention than verbal communication (Mintzberg 1973, 1975, 1989, Daft, Sormunen and Parks 1988). By contrast managers pay close attention to *soft* verbal information, such as gossip and hearsay (Neustadt 1960, Mintzberg 1973, 1989). The neglect of written material however, may not be as complete as is implied by this research. There is evidence that managers may use their time out of working hours to address more formal written materials (Brewer and Tomlinson 1964).

4. Although largely ignored by managerial texts, feelings and emotions play an important role in managerial work. Managers exhibit the same range, "richness and poverty of emotions" (Hosking and Fineman 1990, p.595) as other human beings. These feelings and emotions have a powerful impact on their work behaviour and personal experience (Herzog 1980, Terkel 1985, Hosking and Fineman 1990). An ability to access and respond to personal feeling states and emotions is an important aspect of the intuitive responses required in managerial work (Stewart 1982, Bennis 1989, Mintzberg 1989).

5. The verbal, ad-hoc nature of managerial work can be highly efficient, both in terms of a fragmented and highly pressured internal environment and a strategic environment which is discontinuous (i.e. variously interrupted, delayed and speeded-up) and dynamic in nature (Mintzberg 1989). The near constant interaction with people provides the manager with the opportunity to form, test and modify agendas whilst simultaneously developing the networks needed to implement them (Brewer and Tomlinson 1964, Kotter 1982, Hales 1986, Mintzberg 1990). The following quote from Kotter (1982, p.166) is illustrative; "Agendas allow the general managers to react in an opportunistic (and highly efficient) way to the broad flow of events around them, yet knowing that they are doing so within some broader and more rational framework. The networks allow terse (and very efficient) conversations to happen; without them, such short yet meaningful conversations would be impossible."

In the sense of developing agendas managers *are* guided by a plan. However, it is not the formal plan outlined by the classical writers but a looser mentally held grouping of "flexible but often specific, intentions [formed] in the context of daily actions" (Mintzberg 1990, p.165).

6. Efficient use of managerial agendas demands that the manager's task performance be simultaneous, interactive and holistic in nature (Mintzberg 1973, 1976,1989, Kotter 1982,

Weick 1983, Hales 1986). Managerial tasks are not performed in a sequential, linear fashion but form an interactive *gestalt* (Mintzberg 1990). Hales (1986, p.102) notes that "managerial work is not the sequential execution of separate activities but is often an artful, simultaneous synthesis of inter-dependent activities...There is both rapid commuting *between* activities...and the simultaneous execution of discrete and separable activities, with the one activity providing the context, even the opportunity, for carrying out others".

An interactive view of managerial work is reflected in an emerging European research focus (see for example Bouwen and Steyaert 1990, Brown 1990, Hosking and Fineman 1990). In this work the management process is characterised as having "a feel, a processual weave, a sense of actions, passions and politicality which [give] it an interconnectedness and *texture* (Fineman and Hosking 1990, p.573). Reference to the connectedness, complexity, texture and context of the organising process are typical of this work (see Hosking and Fineman 1990).

7. Managerial work presents competing demands and pressures. Much of the manager's work involves coping with and reconciling the conflict, ambiguity, and cross-pressures inherent in the job (Hales 1986, Stewart 1989). The ongoing interaction of conflict and compromise produces a work

process which is inherently political in nature (Brown 1990, Hosking and Fineman 1990, see also content feature five above).

What are the Boundaries of Managerial Work?

The findings outlined above imply that managers can be defined in terms of content and process characteristics that form a distinct and exclusive part of the managerial function. Unfortunately there has been no research which has attempted to compare the work of managers with those of non-managers (Hales 1986, Stewart 1989). "In short, the studies have not demonstrated that there is a bounded and separable set of activities which may be called - 'managerial work' - and not merely activities which managers have been shown to do" (Hales 1986, p.109).

There is a substantial sociological literature which asserts that the characteristics associated with managerial work are widely disseminated through other non-managerial occupations (see Braverman 1974, Marglin 1976, Nichols and Beynon 1977 and Storey 1980). The implication is that the managerial function, rather than making a distinct and identifiable contribution, acts as an ideologically linked *status* justifying the inequitable distribution of organisational benefits (Anthony 1977).

The absence of empirical evidence makes it difficult to respond directly to such arguments, or to clearly specify the parameters of exclusively managerial work. Nevertheless it *is* possible to define the term manager in ways that differentiate it from other social functions. Neither does it seem unreasonable to assert that the features of managerial work, while perhaps not exclusively managerial, have sufficient specificity to bring further definition to the managerial function.

WHAT CONSTITUTES EFFECTIVE VERSUS INEFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT?

In the previous section we looked generally at the managerial function and attempted to define it semantically and in terms of identifiable characteristics. In this section we look at research and current research issues relating to the characteristics and behaviours of specifically effective versus ineffective managers

Previous Research

There has been little research to date on the differences between effective and ineffective managers. Attempts to link observed behaviour with effectiveness were strengths of some of the critical incident studies of the 1950's (see Flanagan 1951, 1952, Kay 1959). Effectiveness was also a focus in the early studies of foremen (Guest 1956, Jasinski

1956, Roach 1956, Kay 1959). It is not until comparatively recently however, that the issue of effectiveness has again received serious attention (Morse and Wagner 1978, Luthans, Rosenkrantz and Hennessey 1985, Martinko and Gardner 1990).

The later studies provide valuable insights into the behaviours associated with positive performance outcomes. They indicate that effective behaviour varies between organisations and management levels (Morse and Wagner 1978, Luthans *et al* 1985). They also highlight the impact of the environment on managerial behaviour (Martinko and Gardner 1990). These studies however, are but a small beginning in an area which has been substantially neglected.

For the most part our knowledge of managerial work is not grounded in any concept of effectiveness. While we have a very substantial literature on managerial practise we have very little literature which attempts to distinguish between *effective* and *ineffective* managerial practise. Stewart (1982) for example, does an outstanding job of highlighting the diversity of managerial work and the choices available to the manager in defining that work. She provides no information however, as to the efficacy of the choices made, in terms of outcomes, or of the belief systems that actuate those choices.

Most of the management literature, including studies that claim to describe effective management (see for example Sayles 1979) do not even define the term effectiveness, far less attempt to operationalise the concept. This definitional inadequacy reflects the lack of integrating theory, in both the management literature (Martinko and Gardner 1985, Hales 1986, Stewart 1989) and in the related organisational effectiveness literature (Goodman, Atkin and Schoorman 1983, Lewin and Minton 1986). It also reflects a failure in the management literature to develop consistent terms and categories (Hales 1986).

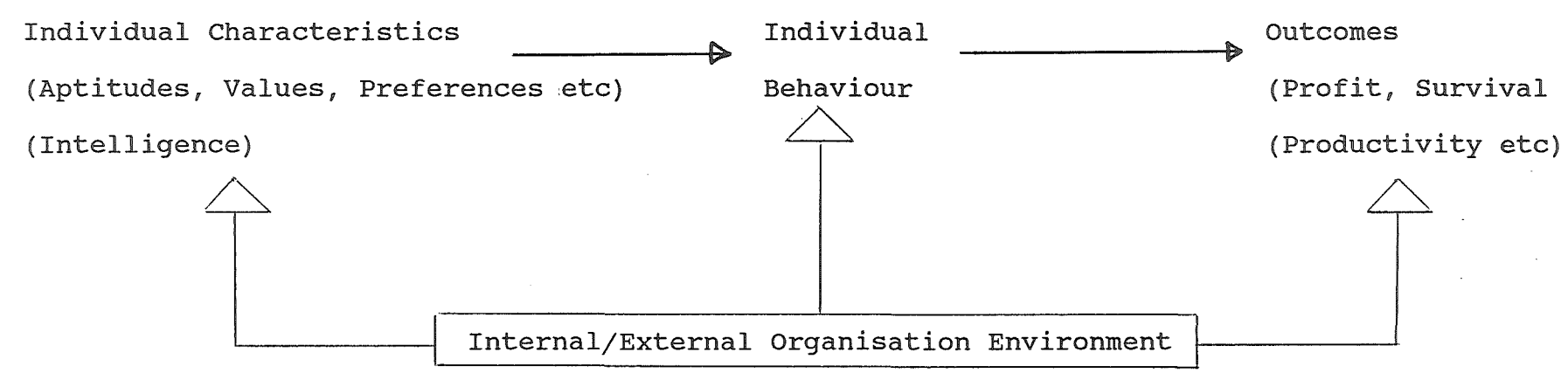
The lack of attention to effectiveness is a serious flaw in the literature which has been highlighted in all of the recent reviews (Martinko and Gardner 1985, Hales 1986, Stewart 1989). As indicated by Luthans *et al* 1985, p.257) there is a need "to go beyond asking what managers really do" and ask instead "what do *successful* managers really do?" This is one of the most important requirements of future management research.

Defining Managerial Effectiveness

Figure 2:1 outlines a person-process-product model of managerial effectiveness drawn from Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick (1970). The model indicates that managerial effectiveness can be defined in terms of

FIGURE 2:1

A MODEL OF MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS



Person Process Product

individual characteristics, individual behaviour and organisational outcomes. The term *characteristics* refers to the personal qualities and traits that are required for managerial success. Such characteristics have been exhaustively documented in the trait research (see for example Ghiselli 1971, Stogdill 1974, Bowen and Attaran 1987). They include intelligence, aptitudes, knowledge, temperament and personality. The term *behaviour* refers to the way managers conduct themselves, in their observed actions towards others and in response to various work situations.

This is an interactive model in that it assumes that the person, process, product dimensions will influence each other, with the primary concern being the impact of managerial characteristics and behaviours on organisational outcomes (e.g. level of profit, productivity, efficiency).

As indicated by this model and recent research, the pattern of individual characteristics and behaviours that lead to desired outcomes is contingent on the internal organisational environment (e.g. its tasks, functions, policies, procedures, conditions, resources) and the external environment (e.g. uncertainty, market characteristics). Individual characteristics and patterns of behaviour that are effective in one context may not be so in another (Morse and Wagner 1978, Luthans *et al* 1985). The

effectiveness of the manager is determined by the "degree of fit" (Hales 1986, p.111) between the characteristics and behaviours of the manager and the demands of the particular job situation.

The model implies that a definition of managerial effectiveness should fulfil at least two requirements. First, it must link the characteristics and behaviours of the individual with desired organisational outcomes. Second it must acknowledge that the pattern of effective behaviour will vary across different jobs, bosses, organisations and environments and in response to the characteristics of the individual manager (Campbell *et al* 1970, Fiedler 1974, Morse and Wagner 1978, Hales 1986).

Hales (1986, p.88) notes a recognition of contingency in a number of effectiveness definitions (see for example Campbell *et al* 1970, Morse and Wagner 1978, Boyatzis 1982) in that they all denote "the extent to which what managers *actually* do matches what they are *supposed* to do". Hales later notes (p.111) that what managers are *supposed* to do will depend on the expectations, "tasks and functions" surrounding a particular management job.

With the constraints outlined above in mind and drawing from existing definitions we may define the effective manager as; **One who optimises the long term functioning of the**

organisation by engaging in the behaviours best fitted to the particular internal and external environment in which they manage and to their own characteristics and preferences.

The term *optimises* is used rather than *maximises* in deference to the Seashore and Yuchtman (1967) argument that maximisation of outcomes such as profit or growth would generate imbalances which could be dysfunctional. The term *functioning* derives from Campbell *et al's* (1970) definition. It acknowledges a concern, both with performance outcomes, for example, survival, profit and productivity and with outcomes related to the internal characteristics of the organisation, for example level of participation, cooperation, readiness and morale (Mahoney 1967, Campbell 1977, Lewin and Minton 1986).

Measuring Managerial Effectiveness

The definition outlined above, implies that descriptions of the characteristics and behaviours of *effective* managers need to work at two levels. First, they must be linked to some measure of the outcomes that optimise long term organisation functioning. Second, they must identify the managerial characteristics and behaviours that are most efficacious in obtaining those outcomes in the specific environmental context of the manager. We will look first at

the issues surrounding outcome measurement. We then turn to the development of categories against which the outcome measures can be compared.

Objective versus Subjective Outcome Measures

The selection of criteria for use in outcome measurement has a long and chequered history (Smith 1976, Nathan and Alexander 1988). Outcome criteria range between *hard* objective (for example production quantity) and *soft* subjective (for example supervisory rankings).

A variety of objective criteria have been employed. Morse and Wagners' (1978, p.31) study, for example, used "economic end result data such as return on investment and budgeted versus actual costs". Martinko and Gardiner's (1990) study of school principals used measures of student performance on minimal competency and standardised achievement tests. Other objective criteria include profit, sales, rates of return, production quantity, production quality, absenteeism, productivity, accidents, staff morale and turnover (Campbell *et al* 1970, Campbell 1977, Boyatzis 1982, Lewin and Minton 1986).

Objective criteria are frequently deficient in that they ignore important aspects of the job. Production output, for example, is only one aspect of a first level supervisor's

job. Such objective performance criteria do not acknowledge the impact of the manager's behaviour on internal organisational or unit characteristics, such as morale and satisfaction (Mahoney 1967, Campbell *et al* 1970, Lewin and Minton 1986).

Perhaps more significant, is the potential for objective measures to be contaminated by factors beyond the manager's control. As implied in Figure 2:1, the "human, financial, and material resources" (Campbell *et al* 1970, p.105) available to the manager and the conditions of the external environment can impact dramatically on their outcomes. Objective criteria do not account for the impact of such uncontrollable factors on the perceived effectiveness of the manager (Campbell *et al* 1970, Nathan and Alexander 1988).

The most widely used subjective outcome criteria are global rankings and ratings, often conducted by the manager's superior (see for example Mahoney, Jerdee and Nash 1960, Morse and Wagner 1978, and Martinko and Gardiner 1990). Such criteria are useful in that they provide an overall indicator of a manager's effectiveness, in relation to their contribution to organisational functioning. They can also be expected to cover a range of managerial behaviours performed over time and are less likely to suffer from deficiency problems, than objective criteria. Observers inside the organisation are likely to be aware of what the

individual manager has contributed, hence subjective criteria are less likely to be contaminated by external factors beyond the manager's control.

The major weakness of subjective criteria is the inability of the researcher to discern the extent to which the judgement of the observer is contaminated by observational errors such as halo, central tendency, leniency, limited observations and bias relating to factors such as age, sex, education, appearance and race (Campbell *et al* 1970, Nathan and Alexander 1988). A related weakness of superior only rankings/ratings is that other members of the ratee manager's constituency (for example, peers, subordinates, clients) are not included. The perceptions of superiors may not be shared by other equally perceptive members of the manager's constituency.

A variation on ranking/rating methods are salary or promotion indices corrected for age or length of job tenure (Hall 1976, McCall and Segrist 1980, Luthans *et al* 1985). A further variation on this approach is to define the manager as effective or successful by virtue of the fact that they have made it into a top management position (Luthans *et al* 1985, Cox and Cooper 1988). Such criteria retain the advantages of global rankings and have the additional benefit of representing the perspectives of a number of superiors accumulated over the manager's time in the

organisation. These perspectives presumably reflect the manager's capacity to consistently contribute to the functioning of the organisation.

These criteria are reliant on the capacity of the promotion system to accurately reflect the effectiveness of the manager. It will always be difficult for the researcher to know to what extent the process is contaminated, for example by level of competition, extent of observation of the managers behaviour and the kind of *judges* the manager has had over his/her tenure in the organisation. Hence, while the pooling of perspectives, implicit in the promotion process, reduces the likelihood of observational error it increases the potential of contamination from factors beyond the control of the individual manager. The promotion process is also weighted toward the perspective of superiors rather than subordinates and other members of the manager's constituency. In New Zealand some organisations (particularly in the public sector) are informally known for their capacity to systematically promote less effective people. This sort of informal understanding casts doubt on the use of promotion indices as output criteria in such organisations.

There are no definitive answers as to the relative efficacy of objective versus subjective output criteria. Nathan and Alexander's (1988, p.531) research, for example, found no

support for the "assumption that 'objective' measures of performance are more predictable than subjective evaluation".

Hales (1986 p.108) contends that subjective criteria may actually be more appropriate in managerial settings than "some absolute, objective, benchmark". Subjective criteria are seen by Hales, as better adapted to the varied and contingent nature of managerial work and effectiveness. The uncertainty of current organisational and managerial environments does lend support to the use of subjective effectiveness criteria. The ability of subjective criteria to focus over time, on specific managers, in specific contexts and to limit contamination from external factors, may give such criteria an advantage in studies of managerial effectiveness. Furthermore, there is the concern that objective measures, however well constructed, may be meaningless if based on unreliable data.

There are indications that the distinction between objective and subjective criteria is somewhat artificial. Both are ultimately reliant on human judgement (in the case of objective criteria in the choice of performance standard). In this sense both are subjective in nature and it is perhaps not surprising to find similarity in predictabilities (Jaques 1976, Smith 1976, Nathan and Alexander 1988). Nathan and Alexander (1988, p.530) for

example, found the overlap between "observed validity distributions from...subjective ratings and objective production quantity...of such a magnitude that little meaningful differentiation between the use of these criteria could be determined".

Overall we may conclude with Nathan and Alexander (1988, p.533) that the selection of objective versus subjective output criteria is not "as serious a problem as has been generally assumed". Ideally multiple criteria would be employed (Goodman and Pennings 1977, Morse and Wagner 1978, Heneman 1986, Martinko and Gardner 1990). Where objective criteria are not available subjective criteria can be expected to provide similar predictability and may, in fact, be better adapted to studies of managerial effectiveness.

Developing Categories of Effective Managerial Behaviour and Characteristics

Having established criteria against which managerial characteristics and behaviours can be evaluated we now need a method for identifying and categorising such characteristics and behaviours. As we discussed above, one of the key constraints in developing effectiveness criteria lies in the varied and contingent nature of managerial work and effectiveness. This same variety and contingency is

also a constraint in developing characteristic and behavioural categories.

Given the diversity of managerial work it is desirable to avoid the use of preconceived categories, frameworks and perceptions. There is always the danger of imposing a generality which is not relevant and/or missing some aspect which is particular to a specific research situation. The need is to rely on "the managers themselves rather than on psychologists to choose the appropriate definitions, wordings and format" that categorize their work (Campbell *et al* 1970, p.479). Not surprisingly, (Hales 1986, p.93) reports a recent "shift away from the measurement of managerial jobs across pre-formed categories toward the discovery of categories".

This shift is not in evidence in recent studies of managerial effectiveness. Most of the recent studies of managerial effectiveness make use of pre-formed frameworks (see Morse and Wagner 1978, Luthans *et al* 1985, Martinko and Gardiner 1990). This is fine in studies that are attempting to compare existing behavioural frameworks (such as Mintzberg's roles) with effectiveness measures taken across diverse organisational settings. It is less useful in studies which are attempting to *discover* effectiveness characteristics and behaviours, particularly those that relate to specific organisational settings.

The research question guiding this study and the paucity of existing answers to that question implies a process of discovery which is more exploratory and inductive in nature than it is deductive. It is the earlier, rather than later studies which evidence such an approach. Flanagan (1954) developed the *Critical Incidents Method* in which qualified observers are asked to report examples of particularly effective or ineffective behaviour. Once the incidents are collected they can be mined for behavioural categories for use on rating forms. This is a useful approach which appeared frequently in the literature of the 1950's (Flanagan 1951, 1952, Kay 1959).

A slightly different method was adopted by Roach (1956). In this study managers were asked to write "a brief essay describing the behaviour of the best and poorest supervisor they knew" (Roach 1956 p.488). These essays, seventy in all, were then content analysed to produce a "checklist-type questionnaire...in which supervisors could be described by a five point scale depending on the applicability of the statement to the supervisor being described" (Roach 1956 p.488).

Campbell *et al* (1970) describe a method for developing job behaviour observation scales which involves five workshop discussion sessions with experienced managers from target organisations. These workshops are used to develop

behavioural dimensions and critical incidents which are sorted into job behaviour scales. Stewart and Stewart (1981a) developed the items for their performance questionnaires by holding brainstorming sessions with "people from the personnel department, outside experts, behavioural scientists, interested line managers and so on" (p.84,85). In all of these approaches, the researchers have attempted to allow the managers to speak for themselves, rather than imposing their own frameworks. These methods are much more likely to capture the flavour of distinctive research situations than are applications of pre-formed categories. However, they are not without limitations.

In all of these methods the researcher collects a series of written incidents, essay examples or group perspectives. In some of these methods the process of collection proceeds through the medium of a pre-formed interview question format. The greater the reliance on such a pre-formed format the greater the likelihood of observer bias entering the research. Use of such formats also increases the likelihood of respondents offering *espoused theories* as opposed to identifying dimensions that are of real significance to themselves (Ginsberg 1989). In this case the respondent is cued by the perceived requirements of the question framework or of the researcher.

Having gathered the data the researcher must give definition to what is discovered and hence to the categories and models that emerge. In the critical incident and essay studies of Flanagan 1951, Roach 1956 and Kay 1959) the recorded observations must be "evaluated, classified and recorded" and finally "summarized and integrated" (Flanagan 1952, p.384,385). With the approach suggested by Campbell *et al* (1970), the effectiveness dimensions and categories that emerge from the workshop process require definition and structuring on the part of the consultant or researcher. This is also the case in the brain storming process outlined by Stewart and Stewart (1981a) and invoked concern on the part of the author's regarding the impact of observer bias.

The collection of raw data in the form of aggregated incidents, essays or group perspectives can present the researcher with a difficult task in the definition/classification phase. There is frequently a need for considerable interpretative input on the part of the researcher, increasing the potential impact of observer bias. Some of the insights expressed by respondents may also be lost. In past research a high proportion of the ideas identified by these methods have failed to subsequently discriminate between managers identified as effective and ineffective (Stewart and Stewart 1981a, 1981b). As a consequence the methods outlined above, are not particularly productive in terms of the usable

effectiveness items produced (Stewart and Stewart 1981a, 1981b).

Concerns of this nature led to the adoption, for industrial use, of a clinical procedure called the *Repertory Grid Technique*. The Repertory Grid Technique is a semi-structured interview process which can be used to explore the ideas and frameworks used by individuals in categorising managerial effectiveness. It has a number of advantages over other qualitative methods.

Most important of these, for our purposes, is that it is a technique largely free of observer bias. It elicits the meanings held by the respondents themselves rather than imposing the frameworks and cognitive construction systems of the researcher (Stewart and Stewart 1981a, 1981b, Crow 1988, Ginsberg 1989). The data elicited in the Repertory Grid interviews falls out in a series of bi-polar descriptors. These data have the advantage of being clearer than most qualitative data bases and are therefore easier to categorise and prepare for further analysis.

The Repertory Grid is a highly efficient technique, generating much higher amounts of usable data than comparable qualitative techniques (Stewart and Stewart 1981a, Dunn and Ginsberg 1986, Ginsberg 1989). Stewart and Stewart (1981a) report a productivity increase (in terms of

usable categories) of around 500% when they replaced their brainstorming techniques with Repertory Grid approaches. Finally, it is a readily replicable technique producing data which can be analysed and validated using computer driven statistical analysis (Bell 1987).

These advantages are confirmed by applications of the Repertory Grid Technique in a variety of organisational settings. It has been used for example, in research on management information systems (Stabell 1978), occupational stress (Crump, Cooper and Smith 1981) managerial performance (Stewart and Stewart 1981a, 1981b), organisation structure (Wacker 1981), organisation innovation (Dunn and Ginsberg 1986) and competitor and portfolio analysis (Walton 1986, Ginsberg 1989). These studies indicate that the Repertory Grid Technique is an ideal method for developing characteristic and behavioural categories of the sort required in this study. The Repertory Grid Technique provides one of the best exploratory research methods currently available and hence has been adopted for this study. The method and its application to this study are discussed fully in chapter three.

HOW DO THE CHARACTERISTICS AND BEHAVIOURS OF EFFECTIVE MANAGERS VARY ACROSS DIFFERENT MANAGERIAL LEVELS?

The literature indicates that organisational level does influence the characteristic and skill requirements of managerial work (see for example Hemphill 1959, Dubin and Spray 1964, Mahoney, Jerdee and Carroll 1965, Child and Ellis 1965, Horne and Lupton 1965, Thornton and Byham 1982, Pavett and Lau 1983, Luthans *et al* 1985). By the term *level* we mean a grouping of staff of roughly equal status and responsibility. There is reasonable agreement within this literature concerning patterns of variation between management levels.

Katz (1974) argued that effective management rests on three central skills. These are *conceptual skills*, *technical skills* and *human skills*. In conformity with Katz's (1974) reasoning most studies report an increased emphasis on longer range conceptual tasks and skills with movement up the managerial hierarchy (Hemphill 1959, Mahoney *et al* 1965, Haas, Porat, and Vaughan 1969, Tornow and Pinto 1976, Pavett and Lau 1983, Dakin, Hamilton, Cammock and Gimpl 1984, Luthans *et al* 1985, McLennan, Inkson, Dakin, Dewe, and Elkin 1987).

Conceptual skills, as defined in these studies, involve two primary dimensions. The first relates "to the sensing of

the organization as a whole and the total situation relevant to it" (Barnard 1938, p.235). The second, related dimension, involves "systematic long range thinking and planning" (Hemphill 1959, p.59). The increase in emphasis shown in these studies is supportive of the proposition that "events become more spontaneous and unplanned as jobs move down the managerial hierarchy" (Martinko and Gardiner 1990, p.347 see also Mintzberg 1973).

Jaques (1976) offers a more sophisticated typology of the distinctive types of conceptual thinking required at different organisational levels. Jaques (1976, p.153) uses the concept of the "level of abstraction" required in the thinking of the manager. These range from concrete thinking "carried out in direct physical contact with the output" for example, by a first level supervisor (Jaques 1976, p.144), through to highly abstract processes based on "unconscious intuition, with a complex of apparently unrelated facts and figures" (Jaques 1976, p.151). These much higher levels of abstraction are characteristic of high level managerial jobs and decisions with a very long time horizon.

Most, but not all (see Ramos 1980, Pavett and Lau 1983), commentators report a decreasing emphasis on specialist/technical knowledge and skills with movement up the managerial hierarchy (Fayol 1949, Barnard 1938, Hemphill 1959, Thornton and Byham 1982, Dakin *et al* 1984, McLennan *et*

al 1987). Corresponding with this shift is the need to leave behind more specialist, technical roles and adopt a more generalist approach at senior managerial levels (Mahoney *et al* 1965, Dakin and Hamilton 1986).

Some distinction needs to be made between the various definitions of technical knowledge and skills. The Katz (1974, p.91) definition is based around "an understanding of, and proficiency in, a specific kind of activity particularly one involving methods, processes, procedures or techniques". Involvement in specialist activity of this kind would seem likely to decrease with movement up the managerial hierarchy.

Kotter (1982, p.134) provides a broader definition of technical knowledge as based on a "detailed knowledge of the business and organization and good solid relationships with the large number of people upon whom the job makes him dependant". Kotter's definition involves broad industry experience, knowledge and networks. The need for a technical grounding of this nature limits the organisational transferability of top managers (Kotter 1982, Dakin *et al* 1984, Whitely 1989). Technical knowledge of this sort is undoubtedly important, even at very senior management levels (Kotter 1982, 1988). We may add a third definition of technical knowledge, based on the need for the *managerial* technical skills that are offered in courses such as the

Masters of Business Administration (MBA). These include for example, financial analysis, marketing, computing and human resource management. One of the key purposes of the MBA process is to provide potential general managers with a generalist grasp of these skill areas. We may assume that such a generalist understanding becomes more important as the manager advances up the managerial hierarchy.

The human skills dimension is important at all managerial levels (Katz 1974, Pavett and Lau 1984, Dakin *et al* 1984, Bonama and Lawler 1989). The need for human skills however, appears to become "proportionally, although probably not absolutely, less" (relative to other skills) as the manager advances up the hierarchy (Katz 1974, p.95, see also Pavett and Lau 1983).

The nature of the required people interactions also changes between managerial levels. At lower levels managers are primarily involved in internally orientated supervisory tasks such as directing, leading and developing subordinates (Hemphill 1959, Mahoney *et al* 1965). At more senior levels the people contacts become more complex and externally oriented (Hemphill 1959, Mintzberg 1973, Alexander 1979, Paolillo 1981, Pavett and Lau 1983, Luthans *et al* 1985).

A related area concerns managerial skill and activity in organisational politics (Dalton 1959, Fletcher 1973). There

has been little research on variations in the between level emphasis on this area. Pavett and Lau (1983) found no significant difference in the perceived requirement for political skills between management levels. Luthans *et al* (1985) by contrast, found that first line and middle managers engaged in significantly more political behaviours than did the top managers in their sample.

The existence and patterns of variation in the between level characteristics and skill requirements of managerial work are well illustrated by the literature. The primary deficiency of this literature, as with that related to more general descriptions of managerial work, is its failure to describe level by level differences between specifically *effective* and or *ineffective* managers. The literature offers no explicit guidance about the ways in which the skills and characteristics needed to be effective in management vary across organisational levels. This is obviously a useful area for research and is therefore one aspect of this study.

CONCLUSION

In this review we have acknowledged the influence (and the constraints on that influence) of managers on key organisational and societal outcomes. We have also, along with Martinko and Gardner (1985), Hales (1986) and Stewart

(1989), noted the paucity of research examining effectiveness in management. Few studies have attempted to discover the characteristics and behaviours that distinguish effective from ineffective managers. Furthermore, there is an almost complete absence of published research exploring the nature of managerial effectiveness across organisational levels.

With these issues in mind we have proposed the following research question; **"What are the characteristics and behaviours of effective versus ineffective managers and how do these characteristics and behaviours vary between different managerial levels."** The methods used in addressing this question along with the results and their implications are discussed in subsequent chapters.

Chapter three describes the Repertory Grid Technique in more detail. Chapter four discusses data gathering and sampling approaches. Chapters five and six define the major scale and factor categories relating to the characteristics and behaviours of *most* and *least* effective managers in this study. Chapter seven tests hypotheses relating to variation in the characteristics and behaviours of most and least effective managers at different managerial levels. Chapter eight summarises the major findings and discusses their implications for managerial practise, teaching and research.

CHAPTER THREE

REPERTORY GRID TECHNIQUE

INTRODUCTION

In chapter one we outlined our research question as; **"What are the characteristics and behaviours of effective versus ineffective managers and how do these characteristics and behaviours vary between different managerial levels."** Addressing this question presents two central problems. First it requires a means of identifying behaviours and characteristics which are representative of effective and ineffective managers. Second it requires effectiveness criteria against which the the validity and relative importance of the behaviours and characteristics can be established. In this chapter we focus on the identification of behaviours and characteristics and the role of the Repertory Grid Technique in this process. The effectiveness criteria used in this study are discussed in chapter four.

In chapter two we noted the varied and contingent nature of managerial work. We found that the process and content of managerial work can vary significantly across different levels, job types, organisations, environments, cultures and

even between different managers performing similar jobs. This variation demands research methods that allow individuals, not researchers, to define the characteristics and behaviours which relate to managerial effectiveness in their particular situation.

This has not been the case in recent research on effective and ineffective managers (see for example Luthans *et al* 1985, Martinko and Gardiner 1990). As we saw in chapter two, most of these studies have used frameworks and instruments developed in other research settings. The danger of such research approaches is that they bring a definition and structure to the research setting which may be inappropriate. It is difficult to know in such an approach how much the findings reflect the perspectives of the respondents and how much they reflect those contained in the method or the researcher. This same difficulty was also present in the earlier more qualitative studies of managerial effectiveness (see for example Flanagan 1951, Roach 1956, Kay 1959, Stewart 1981a, 1981b), with their heavy reliance on researcher evaluation and classification.

The desire in this study was to allow individuals to speak for themselves, within the context of their particular circumstances, without the distorting influence of instrument or researcher pre-conceptions. The Repertory Grid Technique addresses this need well. Its use allows

respondents to describe their own managerial worlds, with their attendant categories, with minimal interference from the researcher. The Repertory Grid Technique is central to this study. In this chapter we describe the technique and the principles that underly it.

BACKGROUND TO THE REPERTORY GRID

The Repertory Grid Technique (R.G.T.) was developed by George Kelly for use in clinical practise (Kelly 1955). Kelly's development of the R.G.T was motivated by two primary concerns. The first related to the impact of observer bias on the diagnosis of clinical patients. Kelly sought an approach which would allow the perspectives of the patient to emerge without the distorting influence of the clinician's training and perspectives. At the therapeutic level the need was for an approach which would allow the therapist to *explore with* the client rather than impose externally derived perspectives.

The second concern related to the then current obsession, in the field of psychology, with statistically based studies of large masses of people. Kelly felt that individual differences were being neglected in this research and sought a clinical approach that would allow individual clients to speak for themselves, rather than being categorised on the basis of large sample norms.

Kelly's emphasis on idiographic research approaches draws from quite radical assumptions regarding human nature. These assumptions parallel emerging views of managerial work (see chapter two) as simultaneous, interactive and holistic in nature. The theory (known as *Personal Construct Theory*) underlying the R.G.T. refutes the notion of a static and therefore predictable and controllable human nature. People are seen as "a form of motion" (Bannister and Fransella 1986, p.63) continually experimenting, evolving, and reconstructing within their life experience.

The attempt, implicit in orthodox psychology, to "fathom the nature of humanity" is meaningless when placed in the context of construct theory. It is the individual, not the scientist who explores, defines and continually redefines the issues of life and humanity. In this sense individuals are scientists and experimenters, continually seeking to "understand their own nature and the nature of the world and to test that understanding in terms of how it guides them and enables them to see into the immediate and long term future" (Bannister and Fransella 1986, p.8). People will vary from each other in the way they construe life and life events. As a consequence "each of us lives in what is ultimately a unique world, because it is uniquely interpreted and thereby uniquely experienced" (Bannister and Fransella 1986, p.10). Construct theory argues for an

approach that accompanies the individual in their unique construction of meaning, rather than imposing externally derived models and frameworks that reflect the perspectives of some other person or body of understanding.

Kelly's concerns echoed our own need to establish effectiveness categories that reflect the perspectives of specific individuals and research settings. Similar concerns, albeit more narrowly focused, have been expressed by others who have adopted the R.G.T. Stewart and Stewart (1981a, 1981b) use the R.G.T to *tailor-make* management development around the needs of individual organisations, rather than assuming that the training needs of managers are the same in all organisations. Crump, Cooper and Smith (1980,1981) adopted the R.G.T in preference to widely used pre-designed health and behavioural questionnaires. The R.G.T was seen as more effective than pre-designed instruments, in involving respondents and developing a representative data base.

Because the Repertory Grid interview process works with elements rather than a schedule of interview questions, its reliance upon researcher input and interpretation is minimal. It is perhaps not surprising that researchers active in the use of the R.G.T claim that the problems of observer bias and *Hawthorne* effects, inherent in so many other research approaches are almost completely absent with

the R.G.T (see Bannister and Mair 1968, Crow 1988, Ginsberg 1989).

PERSONAL CONSTRUCT THEORY

The R.G.T is based on Kelly's Personal Construct Theory (see Kelly 1955). Implicit in this theory is the idea that people need to make sense of their environment and life experience. The world of the infant, to paraphase William James, is one of "buzzing, blooming, confusion". This confusion is reduced by the maturing person through the development of what Kelly calls *personal construct systems*. The individual's personal construct systems determine the ways in which they construe the people, objects and events they encounter in their life experience. The individual's psychological processes are in turn "channelled by the ways in which he or she successively construes events" (Bannister and Fransella 1986, p.63). It is the personal construct system that guides the individual in their search for meaning and in their attempts to anticipate and understand future life events.

The individual's construct system is made up of a series of dicotomous *constructs*. Kelly (1955, p.61) defines a construct as "a way in which at least two elements are similar and contrast with a third". Constructs are bi-polar in nature, for example; *light* versus *dark*, *happy* versus *sad*,

strong versus *weak*. The individual's personal construct system allows a series of bi-polar comparisons to be made, through which they understand their environment by simultaneously noting similarities and differences and by searching for commonalities within diverse events (Easterby-Smith 1980). Individual constructs form part of a hierarchical *system* in which constructs are linked in subordinate and superordinate relationships. For example, for some individuals, the construct *sports car* versus *saloon car* might be subordinate to the construct *good car* versus *bad car*. Both constructs might in turn fall under the *mobile* side of the *mobile* versus *immobile* construct.

An individual's construct system may contain thousands of such groupings, each with hundreds of constructs. The construct *employment* (versus *work*), for example, might have hundreds of types of paid activity grouped under it. This allows the individual to handle a whole range of constructions around the theme of employment. The linking of these construct groupings provides the individual with a complete system for understanding and dealing with the people, objects, and events that confront them.

The accuracy of an individual's personal constructs are constantly being assessed on the basis of their past predictions relative to actual current outcomes (i.e. their success in anticipating events). Personal constructs are

thus involved in an ongong validation and modification process on the basis of current feedback. For example, a manager who construes his/her effectiveness as based around maintaining a distance from staff and emphasizing formal authority will face a major challenge should the culture of their organisation emphasize personal contact and team based approaches. The failure of such a construction to produce the anticipated success will challenge the validity of his/her construct system and may lead to a change in the way managerial effectiveness is construed. The concept that emerges from this process is of an individual in a state of near constant change, never quite the same from one moment to the next. It is also in this process that we see the individual as the scientist and the inquirer, constructing hypotheses and modifying them in response to the results the experiments have generated.

The people, objects and events that provide the focus of an individual's personal constructs are called *elements*. The constructs are ways of understanding the elements that appear in the individual's life experience. Constructs are not passive labels but are an active means of evaluating and discriminating between the elements that enter the individual's life experience (Fransella and Bannister 1977, Bannister and Fransella 1986).

Just as individuals are unique, so will personal construct systems be unique in many ways. The researcher must seek to understand the respondent's unique perspective on both poles of their constructs. "Each construct is seen as a dichotomy and the two opposing poles are individual and personal to the construer. For example `angry' and `happy' could be opposites for many people, but for some people `kind' might be the opposite of `angry'" (Crow 1988, p.1).

The constructs of different individuals will also have "many similarities in content and structure due to a common sensory and cognitive system, and a pool of common knowledge that has been accumulating for thousands of years" (Lim 1984, p.28, see also Slater 1977). The R.G.T offers the dual potentiality of pooling information held collectively, while at the same time revealing distinctive individual characteristics. In the case of this research, for example, it provides a means of tapping and pooling the collective views of a large number of respondents on management effectiveness. At the same time it acknowledges and explores the unique insights of specific individuals and situations.

APPLICATION OF THE REPERTORY GRID TECHNIQUE

A variey of procedures are available for eliciting respondent constructs. All of the procedures involve a comparison of elements in terms of the respondent's personal constructs. In this research we used the method of *triads*. This method proceeds as follows;

i. Element Elicitation

The researcher or clinician will select a set of elements, sometimes in conjunction with the respondent (or client). An element is an event, person or object in the domain under consideration. The elements are chosen to represent the specific domain that the researcher and respondent will explore. For example, if the field of study was personal relationships the elements might be; *my wife, my best friend, a person I dislike*. It is in the choice of element that the researcher has the greatest influence in the interview process. Care needs to be taken to ensure that the element set is representative of the domain under consideration.

Elements are usually presented in groups of three (triads). There is nothing sacred about the use of triads however and *dyadic* presentations appear equally successful. The element

sets often include both positive and negative elements so that both poles of the respondent's construct system are explored. In the example given above, the elements *my wife* and *my best friend* would act as positive elements with *a person I dislike* acting as the negative. This allows both poles of the respondent's construct system to be explored.

Having established an element set representative of the domain of interest, the R.G.T commences with a preliminary outline of the purpose of the interview and an assurance that the responses will be held in complete confidence. The respondent is then given a number of blank cards on which they write the elements around which the interview will revolve.

Stewart and Stewart (1981a, p.87) provide the following example of a list of elements designed to explore the way managers construe their own work activity.

1. An event where you feel you have performed well.
2. An event where you feel you failed to live up to your own expectations.
3. An event which was important but which came as a bit of a surprise.
4. A routine event that you enjoy.
5. A routine event that you dislike.
6. An important event requiring mainly managerial skills.

7. An important event requiring mainly technical/managerial skills.
8. Another event where you feel that you performed well.
9. Any other event that is an important part of your work.

At the start of the interview respondents are asked to think about each element in turn and to write on cards a specific example of each of the elements. For example, in responding to element one "an event where you performed well" the respondent might write "the sales presentation I gave at last months conference".

ii. Construct Elicitation

The cards are numbered to correspond with the element they represent and in the triad method, the elements are presented to the respondent one set at a time. The interviewer commences by requesting the respondent to consider the elements described on cards one, two, and three and asks "I would like you to tell me one way in which any two of these events are similar but different from the third". In the case of the Stewart and Stewart (1981a, p.87) example the respondent replied "Well, Planning and Travelling are both solitary activities, but Selection Interviewing involves other people". The interviewer then recorded; *Solitary ----- Done with others*. Thus the first construct emerged.

In the process of the interviews the interviewer will draw comparisons between triads involving all or a number of the elements. These comparisons will produce a series of bi-polar constructs providing a full picture of the way in which the respondent *construes* the subject being researched. Appendix One provides an example of the constructs elicited by an interview conducted as part of this research on effective and ineffective managers. In eliciting constructs the type of element is important. Our experience indicates that the use of people or objects as elements proves easier in construct elicitation than events. Respondents have more difficulty generating constructs when abstract events are used, rather than more concrete elements such as people or objects.

iii. Laddering Up and Down

As mentioned above, individual constructs exist in a construct hierarchy. Construct relationships can be further explored using Hinkle's (1965, 1970) *laddering* technique. To *ladder-up* the construct hierarchy the interviewer asks questions such as "Why is that important?" To *ladder-down* the interview asks questions like "Why is that?", "What are the implications of that?", "Tell me more about that?" As an example, lets imagine the respondent was presented with the following three elements.

1. The car I would most like to own.
2. The car I would least like to own.
3. Another car I would really like to own.

The respondent may record *Lamborgini Diablo* as element one, with *Lada 1300* and *Porsche 911SC*, as elements two and three respectively. In response to the request "I would like you to tell me one way in which two of these cars are similar, but different from the third", the respondent may reply "Well two of these are *sports cars* while the other one is a *saloon*."

Laddering up to superordinate constructs in the hierarchy involves the question "You mentioned that two of these cars are sports cars and one is a saloon; why is that important?" The respondent might then say "Well sports cars are *exciting* saloon cars are *boring*". *Exciting---boring* becomes a superordinate construct in the *car* construct system. To ladder down to subordinate constructs the interviewer could say "You mentioned that two of these cars are sports cars and one is a saloon; tell me more about that?" The respondent may reply "Well elements one and three are *highly streamlined* while number two is *shaped like a brick*." *Streamlined---brick shaped* becomes a subordinate construct in the *car* construct system.

Using these sorts of questions the initial construct becomes a basis from which other constructs are generated. Each new construct casts more light on the way the respondent construes the subject being researched and provides additional background information and examples. Laddering up the construct hierarchy tends to generate constructs more personal and more related to the respondent's philosophy of life. Laddering down generates more detailed and technical details about the elements themselves.

At the end of the interview the interviewer will have recorded a large number of polar constructs (usually between ten and sixty) all of which provide insights on the subject matter. A series of interviews with, for example, twenty managers will typically yield between three and four hundred constructs, although not all will be unique. These constructs comprise, in themselves, a rich source of data.

iv. Data Analysis

The process can be terminated at this point, with the respondent having benefited simply by having their constructs elicited and clarified. The interview transcripts can also be content analysed if further information is needed by the researcher. Alternatively the respondent may be asked to rate the elements by their constructs in terms of their unique *grid* or *matrix*. The

grid lists the elements used along the top and the constructs elicited from the respondent down the side. The respondent is invited to rate the extent to which each construct applies to to each element. The grid can then be used to explore the relationships between elements more fully and can be analysed using one of a number of computer packages that have been developed (for example Bell 1987).

An example (from Easterby-Smith 1980) of a grid matrix is shown in Figure 3:1. As can be seen in this example, the elements are people with whom the respondent has a relationship. The constructs are those that have been obtained in an interview process similar to that outlined above. The ticks and crosses mark the pole of the construct most representative of the person used as the element. The grid provides the respondent with a simple but useful picture of similarities and differences in the people they interact with. More sophisticated grids require responses to rating scales rather than the simple binary approach shown in Figure 3:1. This later approach permits more sophisticated forms of statistical analysis.

FIGURE 3:1

ELEMENTS

	(✓)	1 "Myself	2 "Boss"	3 "Wife"	4 "Best Friend"	5 "Person Disliked)	(X)
A	Driving	✓	✓	✓	✓	X	Easy-going
B	Mobile	✓	X	✓	✓	X	Static
C	Rigid	X	✓	X	X	✓	Open
D	Intelectual	✓	✓	✓	X	X	Non-intellectual
E	Critical	X	X	X	✓	✓	Accepting

(A dot (.) in the top left hand corner of a square indicates that the element above was one of the "triad" that produced the construct for that row).

v. Comparing Construct Systems

Eliciting constructs from individuals through interviews (with or without the extension to the grid) is a time consuming process that may not be feasible in dealing with large numbers of subjects. This was an issue in this research as we wanted to use the R.G.T on a group large enough to permit some generalizability in the findings. We also wanted to compare our results across respondents, particularly those at different organisational levels. An individually formed and completed grid like that shown in Figure 3:1 cannot by its nature, be compared with the grid of another person. To make comparisons across respondents requires a *common grid* which is completed by all respondents.

One way of approaching this issue was to take a sample of subjects and elicit a consensus of constructs from them as a group. These constructs can in turn be used in a standardised grid which is administered to larger numbers of subjects (Crump *et al* 1981, Eden, Jones and Simms 1983, Stewart and Stewart 1981a, Ginsberg 1989). The interviews generated a very large number of constructs, as the respondents thought about managerial work. We felt that reducing such a large number of constructs to the fifteen or so constructs that might be included on a common grid was making too great an imposition on the data. There were also

practical difficulties in arranging group sessions to generate the original constructs. For these reasons this process was not adopted.

Consequently we adopted the Stewart and Stewart (1981a,1981b) approach of eliciting constructs from a representative sample of a larger subject group and using them as the basis for a questionnaire. The questionnaire can then be administered to the larger group. The questionnaire operates as a large grid, in this case with many constructs (170 in the present study) and only two elements. The respondents in the questionnaire survey rated the two elements (*most effective manager* and *least effective manager*) separately on each of the 170 constructs.

The questionnaire is comprised of categories generated by, and in the language of, the subjects themselves. The large number of constructs used ensures that the full range of constructs generated in the interviews are represented on the questionnaire. It therefore retains the observer neutralising characteristics of the interviews. As long as it presents a representative range of constructs the questionnaire can simultaneously tap the unique insights of individuals and provide more generalizable findings. This is the process used in this study. The interview approach, the questionnaire formation process and the questionnaire structure are explained in detail in chapter four.

CONCLUSION

The Repertory Grid Technique provides a means of eliciting constructs of managerial effectiveness that reflect the realities of individual and organisation settings, rather than those of the researcher or research method. Both as a technique and in its underlying assumptions, it is well suited to the varied, complex and interactive nature of managerial work. It proved to be a highly effective tool in addressing the research question guiding this study. Its application in this study is detailed in chapter four. Subsequent chapters outline the results of this application and their implications.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA GATHERING

INTRODUCTION

Chapter two highlighted the lack of research on effectiveness in management. The literature reviewed in chapter two also indicated that there is very little research exploring variations in managerial effectiveness (in terms of characteristics and behaviour) between different managerial levels. With these issues in mind we developed the following research question; **"What are the characteristics and behaviours of effective versus ineffective managers and how do these characteristics and behaviours vary between different managerial levels".**

This question is the central focus of this study. In addressing the research question, the data gathering process proceeded through two phases. First, repertory grid interviews (eighty-nine in total) were conducted with managers and non-managers in a large public sector organisation. These interviews were designed to elicit constructs differentiating effective from ineffective managers in the organisation. Second, a questionnaire study was designed, in which the interview constructs were introduced to a larger sample of managers and non-managers

in the organisation. As suggested in chapter three, the questionnaire was developed from the constructs elicited in the interviews. Three hundred and sixty-five questionnaire responses were obtained.

In both the interview and questionnaire phases of the study, criteria of managerial effectiveness were used as a base for the generation of effectiveness categories and for subsequent analysis. In this chapter we outline the data gathering methods and the effectiveness criteria employed. Issues relating to sampling and the generalizability of results are also discussed. Specific modes of data analysis are outlined in the chapters to which they are related. An overview of the data analysis process is also provided at the end of this chapter, as a guide to the reading of subsequent chapters.

ORGANISATIONAL SETTING AND PARTICIPANTS

The study was conducted in the Department of Social Welfare, with the data being collected during 1986 and 1987. This is a large New Zealand public sector organisation which, at the time of data gathering, employed slightly less than six thousand staff (5943). The Department of Social Welfare was at the time, undergoing a transformation from a stable bureaucracy to a more innovative and accountable public sector organisation. This study provided an opportunity to

assist the Department's managers in this transition and concurrently gather data from which the research question could be addressed.

Both the interview and questionnaire phases of the study were conducted in four offices of the Department located in Manukau, Hamilton, Nelson and Christchurch. Two of these offices (Manukau and Christchurch) were large by Department standards with 108 and 138 employees respectively. The other two (Hamilton and Nelson) were medium in size with 65 and 69 staff respectively. An additional sixty questionnaires were sent by mail to offices in a wide variety of locations throughout New Zealand. In order to ensure a good cross-sectional sample, a number of these mail surveys went to small offices located in rural towns.

Both managerial and non-managerial respondents were sampled in the study. The respondents were divided into four management levels. Those below the supervisory Divisional Officer level (104 grade level) were referred to as *non-managerial*. The 104 grade Divisional Officer respondents were classified as *supervisory management*. These managers form the first line of supervisory management. Management positions between the Divisional Officers and up to and including the Assistant Directors, were classified as *middle management*. District and Regional Directors were classified as *senior managers*. The *non-managerial, supervisory, middle*

and *senior management* titles are used hereafter. The management level criteria used to categorize the respondents are in harmony with the literature in this area. The literature and the classification of respondents into management levels are discussed further in chapter seven. All of the major work areas were represented. These included Benefits and Pensions, Administration, Social Work, National Superannuation, Typing and District/Regional Directors. A full outline of the interview and questionnaire respondents is provided below.

SAMPLE DEFINITION

In chapter two we defined the manager as a person, usually titled *manager* who has responsibility, authority and accountability for a discrete organisational unit and who has authority and accountability for getting some of the unit's work done through other people. This implies that studies of managers should address themselves to people so titled, who hold clear unit and staff management responsibilities

In this study our concern was to explore the characteristics and behaviours of individuals who met the above definition of the term *manager*, particularly in terms of staff management responsibility. To this end the specifically technical, non-managerial sections of the organisation were

avoided (e.g. legal, planning etc). The focus was on units characterised by staff/manager reporting relationships. As we shall see below, the interview respondents recorded the names of the managers they were comparing in the interview study. A review of the names of these managers indicates that all of them had staff management responsibility.

The questionnaire survey was more difficult to monitor, in that the names of ratee managers were not indicated. The respondents were asked however, to record the management level and title of the ratees on the questionnaire. A review of the ratee managers identified in the questionnaire study indicated that seventy-eight percent of the ratees were either 104 level supervisors or Regional/District Directors. All of these positions involve staff management. The remaining ratees were Senior Divisional Officers, Senior Executive Officers, Assistant Directors and Area Welfare Officers. These positions also involve staff management. It appears that the great majority, if not all, of our respondents would have identified the characteristics and behaviours of managers who conformed to the management definition outlined above. To this extent we can be confident that the characteristics and behaviours reported in this study are representative of *managers* in the Department rather than of senior staff without managerial responsibilities.

GENERALIZABILITY OF FINDINGS

The primary aim of this study was to explore and model the characteristics and behaviours of effective versus ineffective managers. Because the study was undertaken in a specific organisational setting it is important to consider the extent to which the results can be generalized to managers in the Department of Social Welfare as a whole and to organisations beyond the Department.

As is discussed below, the sample percentages and response rates are such that we may be confident that the questionnaire results are representative of the Manukau, Hamilton, Nelson and Christchurch offices (eighty-three percent of the staff in these four offices were sampled in the questionnaire study). There are also indications that the findings may be generalizable to management in the Department as a whole and to organisations outside of the Department.

The size of the Department and the geographic dispersal of its staff and offices prevented the development of a *simple random sample* (Tull and Hawkins 1976, p.159). As an alternative, a representative *judgment sample* (Tull and Hawkins 1976, p.161) was developed. This sample was deemed representative of the organisation, by management representatives and external consultants who had an intimate

and long term association with the Department. As is outlined above, the sample included a variety of offices, (large, medium and small in urban and rural settings) work types, management levels and both sexes. The sample appeared to be at least as representative of the total organisation as a strictly random sample would have been.

Total employee numbers, together with the interview and questionnaire responses at each management level, are shown in Table 4:1. These figures allow us to make an estimation of the representativeness of the interview and questionnaire data. Application of standard formulae (Tull and Hawkins 1976, Gimpl 1990) for determining appropriate sample size (for random samples) indicates that the 365 (6.14 percent of total staff) questionnaire responses would be representative (at the 95% confidence level) of the total Department between +/-3 to 4%, depending on the amount of agreement in responses to a given question. Use of the same formulae indicates lower levels of error in the responses of the managerial population of which 11.87 percent were sampled (see Table 4:1). As discussed above, the sample appears to be at least as representative as a strictly random sample. Given this assumption, the sample size estimates that emerged in applying standard formulae for random samples, provide reasonable confidence that the questionnaire responses are representative of the Department as a whole.

TABLE 4:1

RESPONDENT SAMPLE

Sample	Employees	Interview Sample		Questionnaire	
		No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Senior Management	83	8	(9.64)	28	(33.73)
Middle Management	662	41	(6.19)	75	(11.33)
Supervisory Management	999	15	(1.5)	104	(10.41)
Total Managers	1744	64	(3.67)	207	(11.87)
Non-Management	4199	25	(0.59)	158	(3.76)
Total Employees	5943	89	(1.50)	365	(6.14)

The smaller sample size (with the exception of the middle and senior management groups) of the interview study places greater limitations on its generalizability to the Department as a whole. As is discussed below, the more important issue is the extent to which the constructs elicited in the interviews presented questionnaire respondents with a range of constructs or ideas representative of their work experience; that is, the extent to which the questionnaire was content valid. This aim appears to have been accomplished.

There are strong indications that the findings of this study can be generalized to organisations beyond the Department of Social Welfare. Two pieces of evidence support this conclusion. The first relates to other studies of managerial effectiveness conducted (by the author and colleagues) in New Zealand (Lim 1984, Dakin and Cammock 1985). One of these studies was conducted in the private sector with two further studies being conducted in additional public sector organisations. All of these studies used the Repertory Grid Technique. Both the constructs and construct categories that emerged from these studies show a remarkable similarity, both to each other and to those generated in this study. Given the premise of diversity underlying this study and the capacity of the Repertory Grid Technique to tap into such diversity we found the similarity in these findings of great interest.

The second piece of evidence relates to the similarity between the results of this study and studies of managerial work conducted overseas. In chapter six we outline the results of a factor analysis of the questionnaire data, conducted as part of this study. It is of interest that the factor structure emerging from this study is in direct conformity with the agenda building and networking categories reported by Kotter (1982, 1988). The parallels are striking given the variations in both research settings and methods, between this and Kotter's work. The factor model also echoes the widely recognised skill typology of Katz (1974). These similarities indicate that the findings of this research may well have a generalizability beyond this particular research setting. They support the limited generalizations which are drawn from the results described in later chapters. They also lend support to the possibility of generic models of effective managing which have applicability (although with quantitative variations in emphasis) across different management settings . This conclusion and the need for further research in exploration of this issue is discussed further in chapter eight.

INTERVIEW STUDY

Interview Sample

Having established a research setting we next had to define the perceived characteristics and behaviours of effective and ineffective managers in the organisation. As discussed in chapters two and three, the Repertory Grid Technique (R.G.T) was used to elicit constructs about managerial effectiveness from respondents representative of the Department of Social Welfare.

Eighty-nine Repertory Grid interviews were conducted in the Christchurch, Nelson, Hamilton, and Manakau offices of the Department. Eighty-eight of the interviews provided usable responses. In keeping with the method described in chapter three, the constructs generated in the interviews were to be used to develop a questionnaire for distribution to a larger sample of Department employees. Clearly the questionnaire itself had to be representative of the work experience of this wider sample. As a consequence the representativeness of the interview sample was a critical issue.

This issue was addressed by selecting (with the assistance of the management and consultancy group mentioned above) an interview sample which was as representative as possible (in terms of, geographical area, organisational level, and

respondent sex) of the Department. The interview sample is shown in Table 4.2. The Manukau and Christchurch offices are representative of larger urban areas, while Hamilton and Nelson represent smaller urban/rural populations. Some sampling compromises were made, dictated by the practicalities of interview time, travel cost and accessibility of respondents. Ideally, the sample would have contained more female respondents, more respondents from the Nelson office and relatively fewer middle managers. However, the larger numbers of middle management respondents ensured a good representation of senior, middle and supervisory management ratees.

Overall, there is good reason to believe that the interview constructs are representative of the total organisation. On reviewing the interview transcripts it is clear that there is a great deal of overlap in the constructs generated by different respondents. All of the constructs were mentioned by at least two respondents, with the great majority being mentioned by a large number of respondents. Because of this overlap a smaller number of respondents would probably have generated a very similar construct sample. The larger numbers of interviews however, adds somewhat to the diversity of constructs and provides a guide to the emphasis placed on different categories. Additional interviews were also beneficial in reflecting the different perspectives of

TABLE 4:2

INTERVIEW RESPONDENTS BY OFFICE, LEVEL AND SEX

Respondent Office		Respondent Level		Respondent Sex	
Manukua	= 14	Senior	7	Male	46
Hamilton	= 28	Middle	43	Female	40
Nelson	= 3	Supervisory	13	Unknown	2
Christchurch	= 43	Non-Management	25		
	88		88		88

respondents at different organisational levels (see chapter seven).

Interview Format

The interview study was designed to elicit constructs differentiating effective from ineffective managers in the Department. The interviews were conducted by the writer and (on a few occassions) two trained graduate assistants. They followed the format outlined in chapter three. As we saw in chapter three, the choice of elements being used is dictated by the nature of the domain being studied. In the case of the present research, because we were interested in managerial effectiveness, we invited respondents to think about *most* and *least effective managers* as the element set. The element set used in the interviews is shown in Table 4:3.

Other types of elements could have been used. Stewart and Stewart (1981a, 1981b) for example, report the use of work *events* as elements. Stewart and Stewart (1981b) observed that the use of *people* as elements also promotes effective construct elicitation. Our pre-testing confirmed Stewart and Stewart's (1981b) observation. Pre-testing showed the use of other people (i.e. other managers) as elements to be more successful than the use of managerial events. The *manager* element set shown in Table 4:3 worked extremely

TABLE 4 : 3

INTERVIEW ELEMENTS

1. Your most effective peer manager.
2. Yourself.
3. Your least effective peer manager.
4. Your most effective subordinate manager.
5. Your least effective subordinate manager.
6. Another subordinate manager who is highly effective.
7. Your boss at the next level.
8. Apart from (7) the least effective manager you know at that level.
9. Apart from (7) the most effective manager you know at that level.

well, generating high levels of interest, involvement and candour on the part of the respondents.

Because of our interest in hierarchical differences in perceptions of effectiveness and to reflect the varied perspectives of peers, superiors and subordinates (see Dunnette, Perry and Mahoney 1956, Gordon and Medland 1965, Schwartz, Stark and Schiffman 1970) respondents were asked to think about managers at their own level and at the levels immediately above and below them. However, non-supervisors (who had no peer or subordinate managers) considered only the level above them (i.e. supervisors). First line supervisors considered only their own level and the level immediately above them. The level of focus requested of the interview respondents is shown in Table 4:4.

Interview Process

After a brief outline of the purpose of the interview and an assurance of confidentiality, the respondents were given three blank cards. On these cards they wrote the names of the three managers selected as elements one, two and three. On card one they wrote the name of the *most effective* manager they knew at their own level. On card two they wrote their own name and on card three they wrote the name of the *least effective* manager they knew at their own level. Three new cards were given as each new element set was

TABLE 4:4

LEVEL OF FOCUS REQUESTED OF INTERVIEW RESPONDENTS

Ratee Level	Respondent Level: Non-Management Respondents	Supervisory Respondents	Middle Management Respondents	Senior Management Respondents
Subordinate Managers (Elements 4, 5, 6)	-----	-----	✓	✓
Peer Managers (Elements 1, 2, 3)	-----	✓	✓	✓
Superior Managers (Elements 7, 8, 9)	✓	✓	✓	✓

introduced. The nine elements were presented to the respondents in three triad sets. The following pattern was used.

Triad Set	Combination
1	1, 2, 3
2	4, 5, 6
3	7, 8, 9

This grouping ensured that comparisons were always made between managers at the same level, thus avoiding any cross-level confounding. It should be noted that, in comparing managers, no attempts were made to get respondents to make comparisons across managerial levels. Cross-level comparisons were avoided in order that the constructs elicited could be uniquely cross-referenced to particular managerial levels.

With the element names recorded on the cards the respondents were asked "Can you tell me one way in which any two of these managers are similar but different from the third?" This question would elicit an initial construct. Once the initial construct was elicited construct relationships were further explored using Hinkle's (1965, 1970) laddering

technique. The question "Why is that important?" was used to *ladder-up* the construct hierarchy. The questions "Why is that?" "What are the implications of that?" and "Can you tell me more about that?" were used to *ladder-down* the construct hierarchy.

As an example of the interview process, we will look at part of an interview conducted with a Regional Director (senior manager). The interview had progressed through the first three elements and was now approaching the second triad (elements four, five and six). We pick up the process as the interviewer is introducing elements four, five and six. The interviewer commences "I would like you to now consider three more managers, this time at the level below you. First on this card, (number four) I would like you to write the name of *your most effective subordinate manager.*" The respondent wrote the name Jill Todd (all of the names are disguised). "On this next card I would like you to write the name of *your least effective subordinate manager.*" The respondent wrote the name Joy Mullens. "Finally I would like you to write the name of *another subordinate manager who is highly effective.*" The respondent wrote the name Roger Bright.

At the end of this process the respondent had three separate cards in front of him, with the names of three different managers who formed elements four, five and six. The

respondent was asked to lay the cards out in front of him and think about the named individuals, as managers. After a suitable period for reflection he was asked "Can you tell me one way in which two of these managers are similar but different from the third?" The manager replied. "Yes, four and six *use consultation*, whereas number five is *very secretive and unable to share information*."

The interviewer then wrote down the construct; *Uses Consultation-------- Very secretive, unable to share information*. To further explore this construct the respondent was asked the laddering question "Why is that?" The following response emerged which provided a subordinate construct and further illuminated the consultation issue. "Well, four and six are more secure in their position, they don't feel like they have to defend their right to be in charge. By contrast, number five is less secure and as a result she's always defending her right to be in charge". This response was recorded as the construct; *Secure in the position and don't feel they have to defend their right to be in charge-------- Less secure in the position, is always defending her right to be in charge*.

To explore the issue further the question "Why is that?" was again asked. The respondent replied "Four and six have an acknowledged level of technical expertise and they feel secure in that knowledge. Five has less technical knowledge

and consequently is less secure in her role". The interviewer recorded the construct; *Acknowledged level of technical expertise-------Less technical knowledge*. Through the interview process two subordinate constructs were developed from the original.

At the start of this part of the interview the respondent distinguished ratee managers by the level of consultation used in their managerial approaches. Through the laddering approach the interview explored the underlying reasons for the use or non-use of consultation. We discovered that the use of consultation relates to the manager's level of confidence and security in the position, which in turn is related to levels of technical knowledge.

When the initial construct was fully developed the respondent was then asked "Can you tell me any other way in which two of these managers are similar, but different from the third?" This question was repeated until the range of differences was fully explored. The process was then repeated with the elements seven, eight and nine. This process was repeated to the point where no new constructs emerged and the interview was concluded.

In all cases, managers labelled as effective were contrasted with those labelled ineffective. As a result the interview responses emerged as as series of bi-polar descriptions

(constructs) of the characteristics and behaviours of *most* versus *least effective* managers. One side was descriptive of the characteristics and behaviours of managers perceived as most effective the other of managers perceived as least effective. As mentioned in previous chapters, Appendix One shows a page of recorded interview responses.

As outlined above, respondents were asked to record the names of the managers identified (elements) on the cards. These cards were retained at the end of the interview to ensure that the constructs were aligned with the correct management level in the analysis. They were also used as a check on the reliability of respondent assessments of managerial effectiveness, and to ensure that the ratee managers held staff management responsibilities (see above).

The interviews took between one and two hours to complete and almost invariably generated a high level of respondent interest and involvement. A number of more senior respondents found the process useful in considering their own approach to management and in reviewing the activity of their subordinates. Each interview generated a number of constructs which described the perceived differences between effective and effective managers in the Department. The interviews also provided a wealth of examples and anecdotes which expanded and explained the constructs. The constructs developed in the interviews, were used in two

ways. First, they were content analysed to identify differences in the frequencies with which constructs were used by managers at different organisational levels. Second, they provided the items used in the subsequent questionnaire study.

QUESTIONNAIRE STUDY

Questionnaire Rationale

Repertory Grid interviews provide a tremendous depth of understanding of individual perspectives. The interviews share the limitations of observation studies however, in that the time involved makes it difficult to apply the technique to large respondent samples. In chapter three we discussed various alternatives that can be pursued to extend the technique to larger samples of respondents. The approach employed in this study followed the prescription of Stewart and Stewart (1981a, 1981b) in that it used the interview constructs to form a questionnaire, which was then applied to a larger subject group.

Questionnaire Development

The following procedure was used in developing the questionnaire;

1. The interview constructs were transcribed from the interview protocols onto index cards. Respondents frequently used the same, or very similar constructs. Only unique constructs were recorded in the transcription process. The total number of unique constructs transcribed was around three hundred.

2. The constructs were sorted into conceptually similar categories using a modified *Q-Sort* technique (Guilford 1954, Tull and Hawkins 1976). Six judges worked independently to sort the constructs into conceptually similar categories. The judges then met and were able to agree on a core of twenty-one logical categories, without difficulty.

3. The categories were then used as a guide to the inclusion of constructs in the questionnaire. The judges agreed on a core of 170 constructs which were used as items in the finalised questionnaire. The remaining constructs were dropped because of their similarity to those retained. For example the constructs: *Separates his work and private life -----Mixes his work and private life*, and *Does not allow his work and private life to interfere with one another ----- Allows his work and private life to interfere with one another*, clearly address the same issues. Only the latter construct was retained in the questionnaire. The finalised questionnaire is shown as Appendix Two.

It may seem that the use of judges to classify constructs is antithetical to the spirit of Personal Construct Theory, which seeks to explore the unique worlds of individual respondents. However, as we have noted above, the study also seeks generality, and as such needed to use a standard grid across a number of respondents. Further, although there is some danger of losing unique perspectives in such an editing process, the task of the judges proved to be quite easy. Constructs which were similar were quite easy to spot and it was a straightforward task to eliminate constructs which were redundant. Constructs which were clearly unique were also relatively easy to identify and include.

Overall, we were satisfied that the final questionnaire was representative of the range of perspectives held by individuals in the Department. It was therefore felt unlikely to suffer from the sort of deficiency problems outlined in chapter two. The questionnaire, of course, was not as specifically tailored to individual perspectives as 365 repertory interviews might have been. Nevertheless, it represented a useful compromise that permitted a greater sample size and still allowed individual respondents to express themselves along relevant dimensions.

As discussed below, respondents were asked to complete the questionnaire twice, on one occasion rating the *most*

effective manager they knew and then rating the *least effective* manager they knew. In this way it was possible to explore the perceived differences between managers believed to be effective and ineffective. By presenting constructs representative of those used by the respondents, the questionnaire retained the benefits of the Repertory Grid Technique while providing more generalizable data.

Questionnaire Administration

The questionnaires contained two identical sections, each with 170 items (see Appendix Two). On one section the respondents were requested to rate a *most effective* manager. On the other they were requested to rate a *least effective* manager. As can be seen from Appendix Two the questionnaire items are bi-polar (for example, *Poor Listener: discourages discussion ----- Listens well: encourages discussion*). The respondents were requested to place a tick on a five point scale indicating the extent to which the item descriptors were descriptive of the ratee. To avoid response sets the item polarity was reversed every five items.

The order in which respondents answered the questionnaire was randomly decided. Approximately half the sample rated a most effective manager first, followed by a least effective manager. The other half of the sample received questionnaires which reversed the order. Respondents were

asked to leave at least a few hours and if possible a full day between the most and least effective ratings. The reversal of items and the gap between most and least effective manager ratings appears to have limited the impact of halo effects in the responses (see chapters five and six).

Because the questionnaire was to be administered at different hierarchical levels, and to control for the level of the managers being rated, three versions of the questionnaire were produced. Version one requested respondents to rate 104 level supervisory managers. Version two requested respondents to rate peer managers. Version three requested respondents to rate superior managers. Version four requested respondents to rate subordinate managers. Non-managerial respondents rated only their immediate supervisors and used version one. Supervisors rated peers and their immediate superiors and used versions two and three. Middle and senior management respondents rated either subordinate, peer or superior managers and used versions two, three and four. Table 4:5 shows the pattern of questionnaire distribution.

The ratee category (and questionnaire version) administered to the respondents, was randomly determined. The exception to this was the mail survey in which the administration was manipulated to ensure that the respondents rated only

TABLE 4:5

QUESTIONNAIRES

	Version One (Rating Supervisors)	Version Two (Rating Peers)	Version Three (Rating Superiors)	Version Four (Rating Subordinates)
Respondents				
Non-Managerial	✓	-----	-----	-----
Supervisors	-----	✓	✓	-----
Middle-Managers	-----	✓	✓	✓
Senior Managers	-----	✓	✓	✓

District or Regional Directors. This approach was used to increase the number of ratees at the senior level. Respondents were requested to write the grade and job title (but not the name) of the person they were rating to ensure the questionnaire analysis was correctly focused.

Questionnaire Sample

The questionnaires were distributed directly to staff, in the Department of Social Welfare, in the Christchurch, Nelson, Hamilton and Manakau offices. At each of these offices an explanatory meeting was held, prior to the distribution of the questionnaires. At this meeting questions and concerns were addressed. The instructions on the front of the questionnaires were explained and any areas of confusion clarified. As discussed above, a mail survey was also conducted covering an additional 60 respondents. An explanatory letter was included with the mail survey questionnaires.

The office respondents were visited individually on two further occasions. First to answer any queries and second to pick up the completed questionnaires. With the exception of the Hamilton office an attempt was made to survey all of the staff at each office. The work commitments of the Hamilton office were such that not all of the staff were able to take part. In this office all of the available

senior staff and fifty percent of the remaining staff were sampled. A follow-up phone call was made to mail survey respondents who failed to respond within four weeks. The close follow-up yielded a high response rate from both office and mail survey respondents. The response rates for the office and mail survey respondents are shown in table 4:6.

Usable questionnaire responses were received from 365 respondents. The questionnaire response patterns for the mail survey and each office, work area, management level and respondent sex are shown in Table 4:7. As can be seen from Table 4:7, the questionnaire respondents represent a range of offices, work areas, management levels and both sexes. As is discussed above, the size and diversity of the sample gave reasonable confidence that the questionnaire results were representative of the organisation as a whole.

MEASURING EFFECTIVENESS

Effectiveness Criteria

Having developed methods for eliciting managerial characteristics and behaviours the next requirement was to *ground* these characteristics and behaviours against measures of effectiveness. As we saw in chapter two, a variety of measurement approaches have been employed in past research.

TABLE 4:6

RESPONSE RATES BY OFFICE

Office	No. of Employees	Usable Responses	Response Percentage
Manukau	108	104	96%
Hamilton	65	35	54%
Nelson	69	53	77%
Christchurch	138	135	98%
Mail	60	38	63%
Total	440	365	83%

TABLE 4:7

QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONDENTS BY OFFICE, WORK AREA, MANAGEMENT LEVEL, SEX

Office		Work Area		Management Level		Sex	
Manukau	104	Benefits & Pensions	172	Senior Management	28	Male	110
Hamilton	35	Administration	70	Middle Management	75	Female	191
Nelson	53	Social Work	42	Supervisory Management	104	Unknown	64
Christchurch	135	National Superannuation	39	Non-Management	158		
Mail	38	Typing	14				
		District/Regional Directors	28				
	---		---		---		---
	365		365		365		365

While the preference in this study was to employ multiple effectiveness criteria, practical limitations meant that this was not possible in the Department of Social Welfare. As a welfare organisation, the Department employed none of the economic outcome measures often used in effectiveness studies (for example profitability and return on investment). Other objective effectiveness criteria which might have proved useful, such as budgeted versus actual costs, efficiency of resource usage and staff morale, were not sufficiently developed to be useful in this study.

The performance appraisal and promotion systems were highly formalised and documentation existed in this area on all of the managers in the organisation. This information however, was regarded as too sensitive to be made available for use in the study. Apart from this, both the appraisal and promotional systems were seen by many staff as inadequate and inequitable. At the time of the study, a major review of both systems was in progress. Failure to get access to promotional and appraisal information and problems within these systems ruled out their use in this study. It was not possible therefore, to employ the sort of effectiveness indexes and global rankings described in chapter two (see Morse and Wagner 1978, Luthans *et al* 1985, Martinko and Gardiner 1990)

In chapter two we discussed the preference expressed by Hales (1986) for more contingent effectiveness measures. Hales (1986, p.108) writes "one such contingent standard with which to compare actual managerial practice might be what others *expect* or *require* managers to do. Good or bad performance may then be conceived in terms of the extent to which managers' *performance* matches others' *expectations*".

The effectiveness measure employed in this study followed Hale's prescription. In the interview study the elements referred to *most effective* and *least effective* managers. The questionnaire study followed the same approach, inviting respondents to rate a *most effective* and a *least effective* manager. This classification was reinforced, at the end of each questionnaire section, by a five point global effectiveness rating (see questionnaire Appendix Two). Respondents were invited to rate each ratee manager on this five point scale (ranging from Below Average/Bottom 10% to Superior/Top 10%). As discussed in chapter two, previous research indicates that a single broad subjective measure (such as the *most effective/least effective* designation used here) is probably as useful in measuring effectiveness as are "objective" criteria or a battery of subjective ratings (Jaques 1976, Smith 1976, Hales 1986, Barker, Tjosvold and Andrews 1988, Nathan and Alexander 1988). While we would have liked to have employed multiple effectiveness criteria

the evidence suggests that little has been lost with the broad subjective criteria used in the study.

The subjective criteria used in this study echoed the approach employed by Flanagan (1951, 1952) and that of Roach (1956). More recently Barker *et al* (1988) used the same criteria in a study of the conflict approaches of project managers. Respondents in the Barker *et al* (1988) study were requested to describe the behaviour of the *most effective* and the *least effective* project managers they had ever worked with. The conflict resolution approaches of most and least effective managers were then compared. The study of Barker *et al* (1988) also employed a more comprehensive battery of subjective effectiveness criteria. For example, the impact of project managers behaviour on the job satisfaction and commitment of staff. These additional criteria produced results identical to the broad *most* and *least effective* designation.

In the present study, several of the analyses were run including only *most effective* managers with global ratings of four and five (very good and superior) and *least effective* managers with global ratings of one and two (below average and average). In all cases no significant difference was found between questionnaire analyses using the high and low global effectiveness ratings and those using the broad, *most effective/least effective* designation.

The analysis presented in subsequent chapters therefore, employs only the broad *most effective/least effective* criterion.

The Reliability of the Effectiveness Criteria

During the interview phase of the study, respondents were asked to nominate managers who they saw as *most* and *least effective*. Sixty-eight names were nominated by the interview respondents, some classified as *most effective*, others as *least effective*. All of the sixty-eight nominees were identified by more than one respondent. In fifty-one of the sixty-eight cases there was 100% agreement between respondents about whether a person was effective or ineffective. That is; fifty-one of the sixty-eight nominated managers were designated either *most* or *least effective* by all of the respondents who identified them. There was minor disagreement over the remaining seventeen nominees, but overall, agreement in assigning people to *most* and *least effective* manager categories was 90.6%. This indicates a high level of reliability in the judgements of the respondents and indicates a correspondingly high level of reliability in the effectiveness criteria employed in this study.

CONCLUSION AND OVERVIEW OF DATA ANALYSIS

In this chapter we have outlined the methods used in developing characteristic and behavioural categories descriptive of most and least effective management in the Department of Social Welfare. We have also discussed the criteria used in defining effective and ineffective managers. These criteria provided the *grounding* against which the characteristic and behavioural categories were developed. Issues relating to sampling and the generalizability of the research findings have also been discussed.

The data gathering phase of the research produced a wealth of data. The specific techniques used in analysing this data are detailed in subsequent chapters. The following overview of the data analysis is provided as a guide to further reading.

With the field work completed the first step was to analyse the questionnaire results. From this initial analysis dependent variables were identified which formed the backbone of subsequent questionnaire and interview analyses. The questionnaire responses were used to cluster the 170 questionnaire items into twenty categories (hereafter referred to as scales) of two to twelve items. The scales described the characteristics and behaviours of the *most* and

least effective ratee managers. The scales and the clustering technique are described in chapter five.

The scales were in turn factor analysed to a two factor solution. In addition to the two factors, the scale *technical knowledge* emerged as a distinct third dimension. The factor analysis, the resultant factor structure and the implications of the structure are discussed in chapter six.

The scale and factor categories were used as dependent variables in testing hypotheses relating to variations in the characteristics and behaviours of *most/least effective* managers between managerial levels. The interview content analysis, hypotheses, the procedures used in hypotheses testing, the results and their implications are discussed in chapter seven.

Chapter eight concludes this thesis. It highlights the conclusions that emerge from the study as a whole and discusses their implications for managerial research, teaching and development.

CHAPTER FIVE

DEFINING THE CHARACTERISTICS AND BEHAVIOURS OF MOST AND LEAST EFFECTIVE MANAGERS

INTRODUCTION

As we have seen in previous chapters, the principal objective of this study has been to describe the characteristics and behaviours of *effective* versus *ineffective* managers. In chapter four we described the questionnaire development process, which generated a questionnaire with 170 items. The number of questionnaire items was much too large to provide a succinct characteristic or behavioural description. The need was to reduce the 170 questionnaire items to a smaller number of categories. In this chapter we describe the reduction process, which was achieved by forming the items into logical categories (using six judges) and then using Pearson's Correlation Coefficients and Cronbach's *Alpha* to test and finalise the categories. This process generated twenty scales descriptive of the characteristics and behaviours of *most* and *least effective* managers in the Department of Social Welfare. In this chapter we use these scales to describe effective and ineffective management in

the Department. We explore differences in emphasis on the scales, between ratings of *most* and *least effective* managers, and compare them with previous research findings. We also look at the issue of interaction and overlap between the scales. The methods used, the findings and their implications are discussed in this chapter. The results outlined in this chapter have important implications for managerial development. These implications are touched on in this chapter and are discussed in greater depth in chapter eight.

DATA ANALYSIS

Developing Characteristic and Behavioural Categories

Item Reduction

As mentioned above, the principle objective of this study was to define the characteristics and behaviours of effective versus ineffective managers. Following the interview study, 170 descriptions of managerial behaviour and characteristics had been edited into a questionnaire (see Chapter Four). Responses to the questionnaire were used to reduce the items into a smaller set of scale categories.

The ratio of subjects to variables (approximately 2 to 1) precluded the use of data reduction by factor analysis or similar clustering procedures. The recommended ratio for reliable use of factor analysis is 10-20:1. Given the size of the questionnaire (170 items), a sample of 2500 would have been needed for the reliable use of factor analysis. A sample of this magnitude would have exceeded both the number of managers in the Department and the resources of this study.

The item reduction process proceeded as follows;

Step One

Only items which discriminated significantly between *most* and *least effective* managers were included in the analysis. That is, we were concerned to include in the analysis only items which represented true differences in effectiveness. T-tests (related samples) were conducted between all pairs of items on alternative forms of the questionnaire (*most* versus *least effective*). All of the items discriminated between *most* and *least effective* managers at or above the .0001 level. Item 19 discriminated in reverse of the expected direction and was dropped from the analysis.

This result is consistent with the Stewart's (1981a) finding that use of the Repertory Grid Technique yields a high

proportion of constructs which discriminate in terms of effectiveness. However, the very high proportion of discriminating items (100%) raises a concern over the possible influence of *halo* error. It is possible that questionnaire respondents may have felt that *most effective* managers should be rated high across all the items and the *least effective* managers should be rated low. This could account for the large and consistent differences between *most* and *least effective* ratings. As noted in chapter four, the polarity of the questionnaire items was reversed every five items. The respondents were also requested to rate specific *individuals* and to leave a time gap between *most* and *least effective* ratings. These steps were taken specifically to limit the impact of halo effects in the questionnaire responses. There is strong evidence that this approach was successful and that halo error is not a significant issue in the results of this research. This evidence is discussed further below and in chapter six.

Step Two

The process used to reduce the 170 questionnaire items proceeded as follows;

1. Formation of Logical Scales

In outlining the questionnaire development process in chapter four, we noted that six judges worked to sort the interview constructs into twenty-one logical categories. In this process approximately three-hundred constructs from the Repertory Grid interviews were transcribed onto cards. The six judges worked independently with the same construct set. Their instructions were to sort the constructs into distinct logical categories. The judges groupings showed a strong consensus. They then met to discuss their groupings and remove redundant constructs. The judges arrived at an agreed set of twenty-one construct groups (with 170 constructs) without difficulty. These construct groups were used as the initial logical scale categories.

2. Checking Internal Scale Consistency

Using the scales defined by the six judges, each scale (for both *most* and *least effective* manager ratings) was examined for internal consistency using Cronbach's *Alpha*. The SPSSx *Reliability* programme was employed. Cronbach's Alpha is defined as follows (see Norusis, 1988, p.207).

$$\frac{kr}{1+(k-1)\,r}$$

k is the number of items in the scale and r is the average correlation between items in the scale. Hence alpha can range in value from 0 to 1. Alpha increases in size, for a constant r, as the number of scale items increases.

3. Reassignment of Items and Scale Finalisation

Item loadings on each scale were computed using Pearson's Correlation Coefficients for all 170 items. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients were used as guide in reassigning items that detracted from the alpha scores of the scales they were originally assigned to. These items were reassigned to scales with which they had a significant correlation and the reliability analysis re-conducted. In almost all cases the items ended up in the scale with which they were most highly correlated. On some occassions items were assigned to a scale with which they did not have the highest correlation but with which they appeared to be logically related. In no case were items assigned to scales with which they were not strongly correlated.

Thirteen items (9, 22, 30, 41, 46, 55, 56, 69, 83, 93, 119, 126, and 131) were dropped from the analysis at this point,

as they detracted from the alpha scores of all the scales and did not form any separate and cohesive scales within themselves. Along with item nineteen this took the total number of items dropped from the analysis to fourteen. The scales *delegation* and *training* were combined into one, as their items correlated strongly with both scale categories. At the end of the reliability analyses we had twenty scale categories. All of the scales, with the exception of the *external networking* scale, are robust in that their alphas exceed the .50 level recommended as adequate for research purposes (Nunally 1967). The *external networking* scale was of concern as its internal consistency falls below the .50 alpha level. As a consequence it was not included in the analyses described below, nor in the factor analysis described in chapter six. It has been included however, in the analysis of variance described in chapter seven.

Exploring Patterns of Emphasis on the Scale Categories

The twenty scales serve to define the characteristics and behaviours of *most* and *least effective* managers in the Department of Social Welfare. The next task was to explore differences in the patterns of emphasis on these scales between ratings of *most* and *least effective* managers. To explore this issue scale mean scores and rankings were calculated for both *most* and *least effective* questionnaire responses. Multiple t-tests were used (for *most* and *least*

effective manager ratings) to test for significance in differences between the mean scores and rankings of the scale categories. Pearson's correlation coefficients were used to further explore variation between *most* and *least effective* manager ratings. Ratings of *most* and *least effective* managers on each of the scale categories were correlated.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Describing The Characteristics and Behaviours of Most and Least Effective Managers

Using the reliability analysis discussed above, we have been able to define twenty scales descriptive of the characteristics and behaviours of effective and ineffective managers in the Department of Social Welfare. The finalised scales, their items and reliability coefficients, are shown in Table 5:1. As shown in Table 5:1, each characteristic and behavioural category is comprised of two to thirteen questionnaire items. It will be noted from this table, that the reliability coefficients (alphas) are larger in all cases but one (scale seventeen) for the *least effective* manager scales.

TABLE 5:1

SCALE CATEGORIES (CHARACTERISTICS AND BEHAVIOURS)

Scale Category	Items	Reliability Coefficients (Most Effective) Managers	(Least Effective) Managers
CONCEPTUAL ABILITY			
1. Goal Setting	87,134,145	.7086	.7687
2. Innovation	5,10,67,88,106,108, 110,114,116	.7688	.8688
3. Future Orientation	72,75,89,105	.6714	.7618
4. Overview	51,65,68,73,74,78, 91,127,142,154	.8116	.8471
5. Managing/Operating	60,80,136,153	.6124	.6175
6. Stress Management	16,130	.5664	.7483
7. Work Capacity	1,13,15,62,63,102, 121,125,128,149,165	.7894	.8480
8. Assertiveness	3,7,33,49,70,85,95, 97,101,122,150,158,	.8443	.8732
9. Prioritising	71,76,104,107,111, 112,115,124	.7917	.8187
10. Problem Solving	4,12,79,81,82,84,90, 99,113,109,135,137,148	.8756	.8919
11. Personal Organisation	2,54,58,66,86,96,103	.7484	.8249
INTERPERSONAL ABILITY			
12. Delegation/ Training	26,27,34,38,40,44, 117,132,143,	.7766	.7909
13. Consultation	6,8,11,14,29,45,77, 123,133,146,151,168	.8187	.8816
14. Feedback	18,28,31,118,120, 138,139,152,156,167	.8439	.8788
15. Team Building	17,20,21,43,48,140, 157,160,164,169,170	.8793	.8983
16. Concern for Others	23,24,25,32,52, 129,141,144,161	.7910	.8671
17. Personality	35,37,50,53,59, 92,94,100,162	.8096	.8083
18. Integrity	36,39,42,47,64,98, 155,163	.7724	.8490
OTHERS			
19. Technical Knowledge	57,61	.5480	.5878
20. External Networking	159, 166	.4800	.5522

A fuller description of the scale categories is provided in Appendix Three. The descriptions provided in Appendix Three are developed by bringing together the questionnaire items included in each category. The *most effective* managers are described first, followed by the *least effective* managers. Each description presents an extreme picture, with most managers lying somewhere between the two poles. Interview quotations which are illustrative of the characteristics and behaviours are outlined below each description.

As a pre-cursor to chapter six, the scales (both in Table 5:1 and Appendix Three) are grouped under three categories labelled *Conceptual ability*, *Interpersonal ability* and *Others*. The *conceptual* and *interpersonal ability* categories emerged from the factor analysis (detailed in chapter six) and are consistent with previous taxonomies, such as that of Katz (1974) and Kotter (1982). Each of the twenty scales are descriptive of specific aspects of managerial effectiveness. Overall, the scales provide a direct reflection of the realities of managerial effectiveness and ineffectiveness in the Department of Social Welfare. They have already provided a useful guide to management development efforts in the Department and as discussed in chapter four, may have relevance in other private and public sector organisations. For the purposes of this study, we do not wish to detail the specific developmental needs suggested by each scale. It is of interest however, to

consider the broader themes underlying the twenty scales and their implications for managerial development. These themes and their implications are discussed in chapter eight.

Scale Interaction

While noting the high levels of internal consistency within the scale categories it is important to acknowledge the overlap that exists between them. As mentioned at the commencement of this chapter, Pearsons Correlation Coefficients were used to correlate each of the questionnaire items with the initial twenty-one scale categories. In this analysis, a number of questionnaire items were found to load strongly and positively on more than one of the scale categories. To further explore the existence of interaction between the scales an additional Pearson's Correlation analysis was conducted between the nineteen scales (for both *most* and *least effective* responses). The resulting correlation matrices are shown in Appendix Four. They show clear evidence of high levels of inter-correlation between the scales. Appendix Four demonstrates clearly the tendency of the 170 questionnaire items to load significantly on more than scale.

The interaction between items and scale categories, demonstrated by the Pearson's Correlation Coefficients was also in evidence when examining the interview data. As

outlined in chapters three and four, the Repertory Grid Technique (using Hinkle's (1965) laddering approach) facilitated the exploration of respondent construct hierarchies. Use of the laddering questions revealed a series of relationships between constructs in different scale categories. Respondents frequently related managerial strengths/weaknesses in one scale category with strengths/weaknesses in others. No formal statistical analysis was conducted on relationships between scales in the interview data. However, a careful reading of the interview transcripts provides numerous examples of scale inter-relationships. For example, the manager's level of *technical knowledge* had an impact on their confidence and ability to front up to decisions (i.e. they didn't have the technical knowledge to decide quickly). Managers with low levels of technical knowledge were also seen as more stressed and less able to spend time with staff. Failure to manage stress was in turn linked with failure across a number of other managerial dimensions. The interview data also suggests a relationship between *stress* and problems with *overview, prioritisation* and *delegation/training*.

The interview data also highlights the role of the individual's organisational and out of work experiences, in moulding their managerial characteristics and behaviour. Levels of family support and related personal problems appeared to impact on the work performance of the managers'

in the Department. At work, issues of being locked in to jobs no longer enjoyed, lack of support from supervisors and past knockbacks all contributed to lowered work capacity and motivation. The level of support from the boss, for example, was cited as an ingredient in managerial ability to cope with stress. Stress induced burnout in turn had an effect on the work capacity of previously productive staff. One respondent claimed that managers in the Social Work Division lasted around four years before burnout became an issue.

Both interview and questionnaire results provide clear evidence of interaction between scale categories. This interaction suggests that proficiency on one scale may not only have a short term instrumentality but may be a prerequisite to proficiency on other scales. The patterns of scale interaction and interdependency have not been formally explored as part of this study. They appear to be complex and cross all of the scale categories. The scales in the interpersonal category seem to be of special importance. All of the twenty categories described in Appendix Three (with the exception of *personal organisation* and *technical knowledge*), are arguably related to abilities described by one or more of the interpersonal scales. Interpersonal ability for example, underpins and serves as a pre-requisite to effectiveness in almost all of the scales in the conceptual ability area. Effective *innovation,*

future orientation, problem solving and *overview* for example, are crucially dependent on the manager's ability to draw on staff ideas and input, through consultation.

Interpersonal ability is, in our view, the heart and lubricant of the interactive process. As we saw in chapter two (process feature five) interpersonal interaction provides an opportunity to simultaneously build and implement managerial agendas. It is in the manager's interaction with other people that the conceptual, interpersonal and technical dimensions of the job come together. High levels of interpersonal ability help the manager to build efficiencies into a highly changeable, fragmented and discontinuous working environment (Brewer and Tomlinson 1964, Kotter 1982, Hales 1986, Mintzberg 1990). If the manager is interpersonally inept such avenues of efficiency are closed to them. Consequently, we would argue that of all the scales described in this chapter it is those falling in the interpersonal category that are the most important.

The complex, interactive and interpersonal picture of managerial effectiveness described above, conforms directly with the interactive work process described in chapter two. It also has profound implications for managerial development. At one level it raises doubts about the relevance of many of the simple two dimensional models

offered by management teachers (for example the contingency model of Hersey and Blanchard, 1982). More broadly, it provides support for those that criticise the overly rational, analytical and simplistic thrust of much university management education (Livingston 1971, Hayes and Abernathy 1980, Leavitt 1983, Mintzberg 1989). These issues are discussed further in chapter eight.

Comparing the Scale Categories with Previous Research

Comparison with the Content and Process Features Outlined in Chapter Two

Chapters two and three highlighted the benefits of the Repertory Grid Technique as a research approach. In particular we emphasised its capacity to *discover* and describe the construct systems of specific individuals and research settings. The scale categories described in Appendix Three reflect the advantages of the research approach employed in this study. They comprise one of the very few typologies descriptive of the characteristics and behaviours of effective and ineffective managers. This provides a sharp contrast with previous managerial research, the great majority of which makes no attempt at all to relate the managerial activity being described to any measure of effectiveness. The broader literature on managerial work, despite its limited reference to

effectiveness measures, provides a useful sounding board against which the efficacy of the scale categories presented here can be assessed. In reviewing this literature in chapter two, we described eight content and seven process features of managerial work. These features encompass much of what is known about managerial work. It is of interest that the twenty scale categories presented in this chapter, despite being specifically descriptive of managerial *effectiveness* (as opposed to managerial work) have much in common with the features of managerial work described in chapter two.

The issue of choice and definition of meaning in managerial jobs (content feature two) is reflected in the *overview, goal setting, future orientation, innovation, managing/operating, prioritisation* and *delegation/training* scales. These categories reference different perspectives from which the manager can view the job and different behavioural approaches through which they can define their activity. The technical/specialist versus generalist manager distinction (content feature three) is reflected in the *manager/operator* scale. This scale bears directly on the establishment of an appropriate balance between technical and managerial aspects of the job.

The informal/political nature of managerial work (content feature five) is reflected in a number of the scale

categories. Political concerns emerge in the *assertion, team building* and *concern for others* scales. For example, the issue of fronting or not fronting up to management on behalf of staff or clients is essentially a political decision. The maintenance of informal, quasi-political contacts emerges in the circulation/networking dimension of *team building* and in the maintenance of peer contacts and *whole* organisation focus in *overview*. The external networking issue (content feature six) is reflected directly in the *external networking* scale.

The *innovation* scale directly reflects the emerging concern with change and leadership outlined in content feature seven. The need for change and innovation is a key theme of the *leadership* literature. The direction setting aspects of *goal setting, future orientation*, and *overview* and the inspirational aspects of the *team building* scale all echo dimensions of leadership defined in recent writing (Kotter 1988, 1990, Bennis 1989). The strong emphasis on interpersonal contact and ability and the coupling of intuition and analysis which characterises the scales in the conceptual category are also evocative of the leadership literature. Overall the scales developed in this study are highly compatible with the dimensions described by recent leadership studies. This is perhaps surprising, given the public sector context of the study. It does however, reflect the turbulence and change impacting on this and most

other New Zealand public sector organisations throughout the 1980s.

The social and affective nature of managerial work, described in process features three and four, is directly reflected in the scales in the interpersonal ability category. Overall, the scales (both in themselves and in their patterns of interaction) provide a good coverage of key dimensions relating to interpersonal interaction and people management and emphasize the critical importance of interpersonal ability in management. As discussed above, the findings of this study strongly affirm the importance of interpersonal ability as a crucial pre-condition to effective management.

The scales *goal setting, future orientation, prioritising, problem solving* and *overview* touch on the intuitive skills required to manage effectively in a complex, fragmented, simultaneous and interactive managerial environment (see process features five and six). As mentioned above, the emphasis on intuition in these scales gives them a strong affinity with the leadership literature. The high levels of interaction between all of the scales also echoes the interactive work environment described in process features five and six. Aspects of the scales *assertiveness, consultation, overview* and *prioritisation* touch on the characteristics and behaviours needed to confront and

reconcile the competing demands and cross-pressures of the managerial job (see process feature seven). Finally, as revealed in chapter six, the scales form into factor categories which conform closely with the work of Kotter (1982, 1988) and that of Katz (1974).

Overall, the features of managerial work detailed in chapter two, are reflected in the characteristics and behaviours that have emerged in this research. To this extent the characteristics and behaviours identified in this research are in harmony with previous research. It is also encouraging to observe the compatibility between the findings of this study and some of the more recent research trends emphasizing the intuitive, interactive and interpersonal nature of managerial work. Despite its quantitative emphasis we believe the study makes a contribution to the primarily qualitative work in these areas (see for example Bennis 1989, Mintzberg 1989, Hosking and Fineman 1990).

Comparison with Previous Studies of Managerial Effectiveness

To further assess the contribution of the scale categories presented here we can look again at the small body of research which focuses specifically on managerial *effectiveness*. Some similarity is in evidence between the categories outlined here and those developed in earlier

effectiveness studies. They fit closely with the factors developed by Roach (1956) and are compatible with the categories developed by Flanagan (1951) and Kay (1959). In comparison with the categories generated in these studies however, they have greater range and present richer descriptions with greater detail specificity. They provide more insight, in particular, on the nature of conceptual ability.

Morse and Wagner (1978) present six factors which they show to have a significant relationship with individual and organisational effectiveness. From the limited description provided in their paper it is difficult to accurately compare the categories presented here with those outlined by Morse and Wagner. All of the broad factor categories presented by Morse and Wagner (1978) are represented in the scale categories presented in Appendix Three. However, the scales additionally describe a number of characteristics and behaviours apparently not identified by Morse and Wagner, among them *personality, integrity* and *managing/operating*. As with the previous effectiveness research each of the scale categories presents a richer and more detailed description than is in evidence in the Morse and Wagner paper.

The efficiency of the Repertory Grid approach is clearly evidenced when compared with more recent effectiveness

research. Luthans *et al* (1985, p.259) offer very limited descriptions of twelve managerial activities and behaviours. These have neither the range nor specificity of the scale descriptions offered in Appendix Three. Only two of these activities were found to be significantly related to managerial success. Martinko and Gardner (1990, p.339) provide a wide ranging classification system which includes Mintzberg's ten roles. Only minimal descriptions are provided of these roles and none of them were found to relate to the performance measures employed in their study. The number of categories that discriminate in terms of effectiveness is clearly much lower than is the case with this study. This provides further support for Stewart and Stewart's (1981a) claim that the Repertory Grid Technique is a highly efficient means of developing valid effectiveness dimensions.

Overall, the scale categories outlined in Table 5:1 and Appendix Three, demonstrate clear advantages over previous descriptions of managerial effectiveness. They offer a richer, more detailed description of the characteristics and behaviours of effective and ineffective managers than has previously been provided. Unlike previous studies, all of the characteristic and behavioural categories discriminate significantly between effective and ineffective managers. Additionally, the scale categories unlike for example, many of the leadership trait descriptions can be broken down into

individual items and used as performance criteria in their own right. Consequently they are not limited to descriptive use but have a functional utility which has been proven in subsequent research by the author.

Variations Between the Characteristics and Behaviours of Most and Least Effective Managers

As outlined above, an additional objective of this part of the study was to explore differences in the way respondents perceived *most* and *least effective* management in the Department. This was approached by developing scale mean scores and rankings for each data set and testing for significance in mean score differences using t-tests. Pearson's correlation analyses were also conducted between *most* and *least effective* ratings on each scale. We will look at the results and implications of this analysis in sequence.

Scale Mean Scores, Rankings and T-Tests

Scale means (ranked in order of magnitude) and standard deviations, are presented in Table 5:2. Table 5:2 shows that the standard deviations are substantially higher for the *least effective* manager ratings than for the *most effective*. Respondents range more widely over the five point questionnaire scale when rating *least effective*

TABLE 5:2

SCALE MEAN SCORES, RANKINGS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

Most Effective Managers				Least Effective Managers			
Rank	Scale	Mean	SD	Rank	Scale	Mean	SD
1.	Goal Setting	4.55	.537	1.	Team Building	2.40	.786
2.	Assertiveness	4.49	.447	2.	Innovation	2.48	.794
3.	Work Capacity	4.46	.515	3.	Stress Management	2.55	1.019
4.	Integrity	4.41	.478	4.	Delegation/Training	2.56	.695
5.	Future Orientation	4.40	.513	5.	Concern for others	2.57	.825
6.	Personal Organisation	4.38	.511	6.	Managing/Operating	2.61	.777
7.	Technical Knowledge	4.37	.702	7.	Feedback	2.62	.810
8.	Team Building	4.366	.553	8.	Problem Solving	2.63	.744
9.	Problem Solving	4.363	.553	9.	Personality	2.64	.750
10.	Stress Management	4.359	.687	10.	Future Orientation	2.65	.843
11.	Prioritising	4.358	.491	11.	Goal Setting	2.66	.930
12.	Overview	4.34	.513	12.	Overview	2.67	.741
13.	Concern for others	4.33	.493	13.	Consultation	2.68	.813
14.	Consultation	4.31	.496	14.	Prioritising	2.71	.730
15.	Feedback	4.309	.559	15.	Assertiveness	2.76	.785
16.	Personality	4.30	.516	16.	Technical Knowledge	2.82	1.111
17.	Delegation/Training	4.29	.515	17.	Integrity	2.85	.856
18.	Innovation	4.27	.542	18.	Personal Organisation	2.93	.852
19.	Managing/Operating	4.15	.591	19.	Work Capacity	3.00	.779

managers than when rating *most effective* managers. There are a couple of possible explanations for this result. The first explanation is that the *least effective* managers varied in character and effectiveness to a greater extent than did the *most effective* manager sample. The global rating responses (recorded at the end of the questionnaire) indicate that this is not the case. The most effective ratees actually have a greater spread in their global ratings (306 out of 365 of the *most effective* ratees receive global ratings of four and five) than do the *least effective* ratees (338 out of 365 of the least effective ratees receive global ratings of one and two). Simply stated, the *least effective* ratees are a more uniform group (in terms of perceived effectiveness) than the *most effective* ratees. The most plausible explanation for the higher variances is that it is possible to be an ineffective manager in a greater variety of ways than are available to those who want to be effective managers. *Most effective* managers appear to have a tighter and more homogeneous range of distinctive characteristics and behaviours and hence a narrower and more defined path of travel than do *least effective* managers. This is an interesting finding as it indicates a qualitative difference in the nature of *most* and *least effective* management.

Mean scores for *most effective* managers (shown on Table 5:2) are ranked from highest to lowest. The means for the *least*

effective managers are ranked in the opposite direction, from lowest to highest means. The higher the score (and ranking) the more proficient the group, is perceived to be on a given scale. Lower scores (and rankings) indicate a lower level of perceived proficiency on a given scale. In both cases it is assumed that the more extreme the scale mean the greater the significance of that scale in describing either most or least effective managers. For example, *team building,* (with a *least effective* manager rank of one and a scale value of 2.4) is assumed to be of greater significance in describing *least effective* managers, than it is in describing *most effective* managers, where it has a rank of eight. Conversely *goal setting* is seen as highly significant in describing *most effective* managers, but of lesser significance (rank eleven) in describing *least effective* managers.

A scan of Table 5:2 indicates clear differences in the patterns of scale emphasis between *most* and *least effective* manager ratings. In almost all cases, the ranks of the scale categories differ between *most* and *least effective* manager ratings. As discussed above, t-tests were used to explore points of significant difference in the scale mean scores and rankings. The t-test results are presented using Duncan's (1955) New Multiple Range format in Tables 5:3 and 5:4. Tables 5:3 and 5:4 indicate that the between scale differences are highly significant. Some broad themes can

be distinguished through close examination of the two tables.

A look at the top five rated categories on Table 5:3 indicates a high level of perceived proficiency (for the *most effective* manager group) on scales falling in the conceptual category. Four of the five top ranked scales fall into this category. Overall, it is proficiency on scales in the conceptual category which characterise the *most effective* manager group. This is reflected in an average mean score for scales in the conceptual ability category of 4.40 compared to 4.31 for scales in the interpersonal ability category. While this difference is not significant, it does highlight the stronger overall emphasis on the conceptually orientated scales. The lower overall mean score on scales in the *interpersonal ability* category (see discussion above and in chapter six) is reflected in the rankings shown on Table 5:3. Three of the five lowest ranked scales are from the interpersonal ability category. Of the bottom seven scale rankings (see Table 5:3) five fall in the interpersonal ability category. It is in the interpersonal area that the *most effective* manager group appear to be the weakest (although still significantly ahead of the *least effective* manager group).

An interesting exception to these broad themes are the low rankings of the *managing-operating* and *innovation* scales

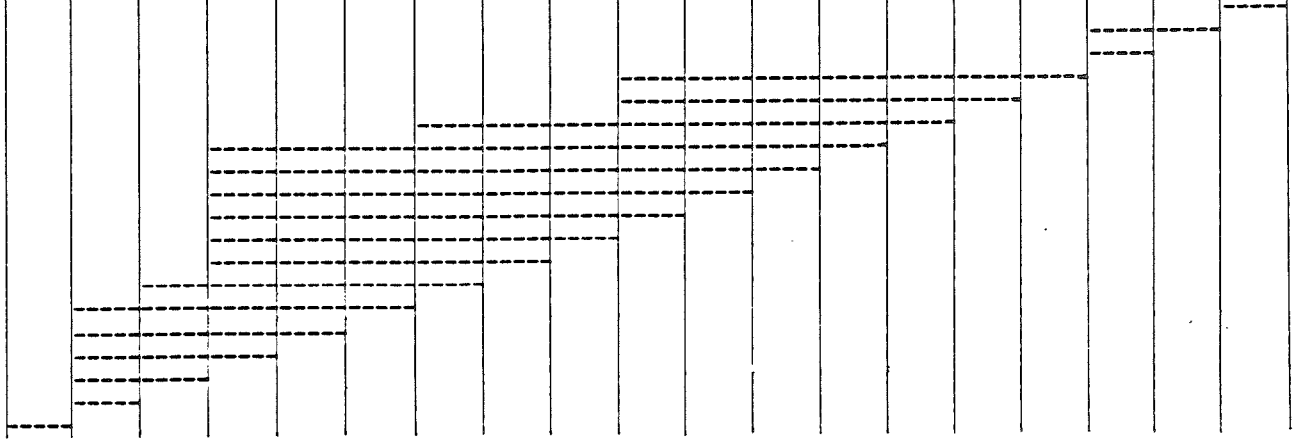
TABLE 5:3

SIGNIFICANCE OF SCALE MEAN SCORE DIFFERENCES, FOR MOST EFFECTIVE MANAGER RATINGS

AS ESTABLISHED BY t-TESTS

(* Significance cut-off point set at the .05 level)

SCALES	MEAN	19 4.15	18 .27	17 .29	16 .30	15 .31	14 .31	13 .33	12 .34	11 .36	10 .36	9 .36	8 .37	7 .37	6 .38	5 .41	4 .41	3 .46	2 .49	1 .55
19. MgOp	4.15		1.2	.14	.15	.16	.16	.18	.19	.21	.21	.21	.22	.22	.23	.26	.26	.31	.34	.40
18. Innv	.27			.02	.03	.04	.04	.06	.07	.09	.09	.09	.10	.10	.11	.14	.14	.19	.22	.28
17. Deltrn	.29				.01	.02	.02	.04	.05	.07	.07	.07	.08	.08	.09	.12	.12	.17	.20	.26
16. Pers	.30					.01	.01	.03	.04	.06	.06	.06	.07	.07	.08	.11	.11	.16	.19	.25
15. Fdbk	.31						.00	.02	.03	.05	.05	.05	.06	.06	.07	.10	.10	.15	.18	.24
14. Cons	.31							.02	.03	.05	.05	.05	.06	.06	.07	.10	.10	.15	.18	.24
13. Concn	.33								.01	.03	.03	.03	.04	.04	.05	.08	.08	.12	.16	.22
12. O/V	.34									.02	.02	.02	.03	.03	.04	.07	.07	.07	.15	.21
11. Prior	.36										.00	.00	.01	.01	.02	.05	.05	.10	.13	.19
10. Stress	.36											.00	.01	.01	.02	.05	.05	.10	.13	.19
9. Prob	.36												.00	.01	.02	.05	.05	.10	.13	.19
8. Team	.37													.00	.01	.04	.04	.09	.12	.18
7. TechKn	.37														.01	.04	.04	.09	.12	.18
6. PrsOrg	.38															.03	.03	.08	.11	.17
5. Future	.41																.00	.01	.08	.14
4. Integ	.41																	.01	.08	.14
3. Work	.46																		.03	.19
2. Assert	.49																			.06
1. Goal	4.55																			



which both fall in the conceptual category. Table 5:3 highlights these scales as the areas in which the *most effective* manager group are least proficient. As can be seen from the scale descriptions provided in Appendix Three, both of these scales are concerned with coping with change. The *manager-operator* scale is concerned with the transition from technical specialist to broad managerial roles. The *innovation* scale is concerned with coping with and contributing to broader organisational change. Given the very substantial changes impacting on the Department at the time of the study it is not surprising that such change management issues should emerge as the area of greatest difficulty for the *most effective* manager group.

Turning to the *least effective* managers, the five lowest ranked scales on Table 5:4 (*team-building, innovation, stress management, delegation-training* and *concern for others*) are indicative of a generalized difficulty with people management, on the part of the *least effective* manager group. Three of the five lowest ranked scales fall in the interpersonal ability category. The average mean score of scales in the interpersonal ability category for the *least effective* manager group is 2.62 compared with 2.70 for scales in the conceptual ability category. While the differences in mean scores are not significant, they do highlight the greater overall emphasis on scales in the interpersonal ability category. Overall the *least effective*

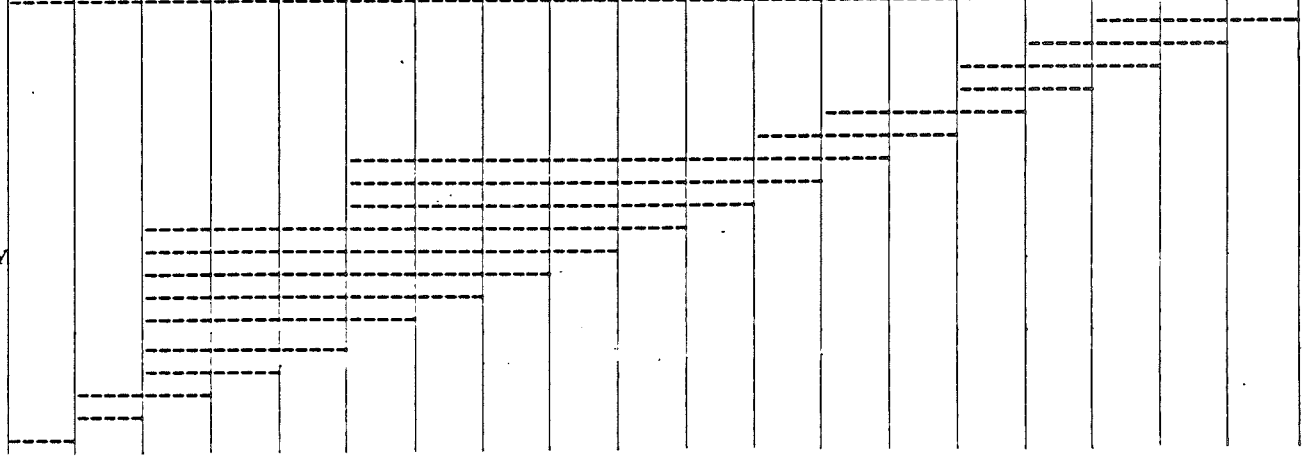
TABLE 5:4

SIGNIFICANCE OF SCALE MEAN SCORE DIFFERENCES FOR LEAST EFFECTIVE MANAGER RATINGS

AS ESTABLISHED BY t-TESTS

(*Significance cut-off point set at .05 level)

SCALES	MEAN	1 2.4	2 .48	3 .55	4 .56	5 .57	6 .61	7 .62	8 .63	9 .64	10 .65	11 .66	12 .67	13 .68	14 .71	15 .76	16 .82	17 .88	18 .93	19 3.00
1. Team	2.40		.08	.15	.16	.17	.21	.22	.23	.24	.25	.26	.27	.28	.31	.36	.42	.48	.53	.60
2. Innv	.48			.07	.08	.09	.13	.14	.15	.16	.17	.18	.19	.20	.23	.28	.34	.40	.45	.52
3. Stress	.55				.01	.02	.06	.07	.08	.09	.10	.12	.13	.14	.15	.16	.27	.33	.38	.45
4. Deltrn	.56					.01	.05	.06	.07	.08	.09	.10	.12	.13	.15	.20	.26	.32	.37	.44
5. Concn	.57						.04	.05	.06	.07	.08	.09	.10	.12	.14	.19	.25	.31	.36	.43
6. MngOp	.61							.01	.02	.03	.04	.05	.06	.07	.10	.15	.21	.27	.32	.39
7. Fdbk	.62								.01	.02	.03	.04	.05	.06	.09	.14	.20	.26	.31	.38
8. Prob	.63									.01	.02	.03	.04	.05	.08	.13	.19	.25	.30	.37
9. Pers	.64										.01	.02	.03	.04	.07	.12	.18	.24	.29	.36
10. Future	.65											.01	.02	.03	.06	.11	.17	.23	.28	.35
11. Goal	.66												.01	.02	.05	.10	.16	.22	.27	.34
12. O/V	.67													.01	.04	.09	.15	.21	.26	.33
13. Cons	.68														.03	.08	.14	.20	.25	.32
14. Prior	.71															.05	.11	.17	.22	.29
15. Assert	.76																.06	.12	.17	.24
16. TechKn	.82																	.06	.11	.18
17. Integ	.88																		.05	.12
18. PrsOrg	.93																			.07
19. Work	3.00																			



management group are primarily distinguished by their lack of ability in the management of people. In this they parallel the *most effective* manager group who, as we saw above, also had relatively more difficulty with scales in the people management area. Just as change management was an area of relative difficulty with the *most effective* manager group, so it was with the *least effective* manager group. Table 5:4 indicates that *innovation* and (to a lesser extent) *manager-operator* were amongst the lowest ranked scales for this group.

While there are substantial differences in scale rankings between *most* and *least effective* manager groups it is possible to distinguish some common themes. Both groups had relatively more difficulty with scales in the interpersonal ability and change management areas. Both groups were also relatively more effective (with the exception of *innovation* and *manager-operator*) on scales in the conceptual area. This suggests that training in the areas of people and change management would be of benefit to both groups.

Qualitative versus Quantitative Differences Between Most and Least Effective Management

While some common training needs can be identified for the *most* and *least effective* manager groups, we must tread cautiously in drawing parallels between them. As we saw

above, there are indications of qualitative differences between the two groups, in that the response variance within the *least effective* manager group is greater than that of the *most effective*. Further evidence of qualitative difference emerged from the Pearson's Correlation analysis. As mentioned above, the differences in ratings of *most* and *least effective* managers were further explored using Pearson's Correlation analysis. It was initially expected that the scale ratings would be strongly and negatively correlated. Simply stated, it was anticipated that the *most effective* managers would score highly on the scales on which *least effective* managers received low scores. This anticipation reflected the premise, implicit in Stewart and Stewarts' (1981b) methodology, that managerial effectiveness varies across common dimensions. The results of the correlation analysis are presented in Table 5:5.

Table 5:5 shows that, while several of the scales are significantly correlated, the correlations are uniformly low and may only reach significance because of the large sample size. This result suggests that, in rating *most* and *least effective* managers, different considerations come into play. *Most effective* management is *not* simply a mirror image of *least effective* management. The two are viewed, by the respondents in this study, as distinct and different entities. The two groups appear to have qualitatively different bases of effectiveness and ineffectiveness.

TABLE 5:5

MOST AND LEAST EFFECTIVE SCALE CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

(Most effective Scale Ratings)

(Least effective scale ratings)	Wrk	Prs	Intg	Deln	Team	Conc	Cons	Goal	Porg	Strs	Prob	Prior	Fntup	Inn	Futr	Fdbk	MgOp	Tkn	Overview
Wrk	NS(-.0363)																		
Pers		**(-.1695)																	
Integrity			NS(-.0718)																
Del/train				**(-.1862)															
Team					**(-.2309)														
Concern						*(-.1302)													
Consult							NS(-.1204)												
Goal								NS(-.1132)											
Pers Org									NS(-.0610										
Stress										NS(-.1040)									
Problem											*(-.1384)								
Prior												NS(-.1133)							
Front													*(-.1367)						
Innovation														*(-.1625)					
Future															NS(-.0858)				
Feedback																**(-.1597)			
Mg/Op																	*(-.1573)		
Tech Know																		NS(-.0116)	
Overview																			NS(-.0934)

NS = Not Significant

* = Significant at the .01 level

** = Significant at the .001 level

Content feature one (outlined in chapter two) makes much of the differences in managerial work (content and process) that emerge across management levels, job types, organisations, environments and cultures. Rosemary Stewart in particular has emphasized the variation that exists in managerial jobs (Stewart 1976, 1982, 1988, Stewart, Smith, Blake and Wingate 1980). We may add to this discussion the finding that managerial work content and process also varies between effective and ineffective managers. This is a rather obvious contribution which, curiously, does not appear to have been previously identified in this area of the literature.

The existence of a qualitative difference between respondent perceptions of *most* and *least effective* management has implications for management training and development. The implication is that the training and development needs of such diverse groups may need to be examined separately. What may be required is a *two-stage* approach to management development. Ineffective managers could be initially developed around areas most specifically related to their current deficiencies. If this first stage was successful, development would then proceed along a separate set of dimensions, aimed at lifting the manager to the *most effective* level. Most management development approaches make no attempt to differentiate their offerings on the basis of the effectiveness of the managers involved.

These findings also have implications for management training needs analysis, particularly the well known method outlined by Andrew and Valerie Stewart. The Stewart's (1981a, 1981b) training needs analysis uses a Repertory Grid method similar to that outlined in chapter two but uses *difference scores* as the basis for training. The difference scores are computed by subtracting *least effective* scores from *most effective* scores. Training is then targeted on the areas with the highest difference scores. The use of difference scores implies that the areas in which training is most needed will receive consistently high ratings on the most effective questionnaires against consistently low ratings on the least effective questionnaires. The results of the correlation analysis indicate that this may not be the case. As we saw above, the respondents in this study tended to emphasize different scales in their *most/least effective* manager ratings. They do not appear to differentiate between effective and ineffective managers along the same dimensions. As a consequence, even the strongest scale correlations (in Table 5:5) are low. It is possible that the difference score approach may lead to the provision of training on the basis of difference dimensions which are essentially mythical. Our conclusion is that the training needs of highly effective and ineffective management groups may in many cases be quite different and should be examined separately. Issues of management

training and development are discussed further in chapter eight.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter we have defined the characteristics and behaviours of the *most* and *least effective* managers in the Department of Social Welfare. We have found that these characteristics and behaviours are in harmony with previous research both on managerial work and on managerial effectiveness. They make a significant contribution to the literature on managerial effectiveness, in that they offer richer descriptive specificity and range than most previous work in this area. They have an added advantage in that they can be broken down into individual items and used as performance criteria in their own right. The evidence presented in this chapter indicates that effective and ineffective management in the Department may be qualitatively different. The two are not seen as a matter of ability levels along common scales but rather as distinct and different dimensions. This implies the need for a *two stage* approach to management development which addresses the different needs of effective and ineffective managers.

The chapter also presents evidence which emphasizes the complex interactive nature of managerial work and effectiveness. This interactivity, along with the types of characteristics and behaviours which are found to relate to

managerial effectiveness (see Appendix Three) have significant implications for managerial teaching and development. In particular they imply an over-reliance on rational analytic models and techniques which may be undermining the effectiveness of managerial development at the MBA level. These implications are discussed more fully in chapter eight.

CHAPTER SIX

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF THE NINETEEN CHARACTERISTIC AND BEHAVIOURAL CATEGORIES

INTRODUCTION

In chapter five we defined the characteristics and behaviours of effective and ineffective managers in the Department in terms of twenty scale categories. In this chapter factor analysis is used to explore the ways in which these scales interact and to develop a model of managerial abilities. As mentioned in chapter five, scale category twenty *external networking*, is not included in this process. Factor analysis of the nineteen scales provides evidence of a two factor structure for both *most* and *least effective* questionnaire responses. These two factors form distinct conceptual and interpersonal ability dimensions and equate to the conceptual and human relations skills postulated by Katz (1974) and echoed by Kotter (1982, 1988). The scale *technical knowledge* emerges as a distinct third dimension. Both initial and confirmatory analyses highlight the presence of a strong general factor. This chapter describes the procedures used in developing the factor structure and discusses its implications.

FACTOR ANALYSIS

Initial Factor Analysis

The nineteen scales were factor analysed using the SPSSx statistical package. Initial factor analyses were run using two, three, four, five and six factor principal components analysis with varimax rotations. Recent research (see Walkey 1983, Walkey and McCormick 1985) has cast doubt on commonly used methods for determining the number of factors to be extracted (for example minimum eigenvalue greater than one criteria and the *scree-test* advocated by Cattell 1965). A multiple replication approach, as developed by Walkey and McCormick (1983) was therefore used for the confirmatory analysis.

Confirmatory Analysis

The multiple replication approach has been used extensively in exploring the factor structures of questionnaire data (see Walkey 1983, Walkey and McCormick 1985, Seigert, McCormick, Taylor and Walkey 1987, Walkey, Siegert, McCormick and Taylor 1987 and Green, Walkey, McCormick and Taylor 1988). The procedure works on the principle that the *true* factor structure of a given questionnaire will be replicated across a variety of response sets. The FACTOREP

computer programme (see Walkey and McCormick 1983) compares rotated factor matrices and uses the S-Index described by Cattel, Bakar, Horn and Nesselroade (1969) to compare factor structures across different groups. The values of the index range from a maximum of one, representing perfect replication of factor loadings through to negative one, where again the factor replication is perfect but the signs of the loadings are reversed. A zero value indicates that there is no relationship between the two factor loadings.

The FACTOREP programme generates matrices in which the similarity of the factor structures between respondent groups is shown by the level of the S-Index values. It also allows the researcher to specify different criteria for the inclusion of items by varying the *hyper-plane* cut-off levels. This allows for the examination of factor loadings above defined levels, for example .40 or .60, and hence reduces the influence of possible error loadings. The number of factors being compared and the hyper-plane cut off levels are progressively adjusted until the most replicable factor structure is identified. In this study the questionnaire responses were divided into four groups. Rotated factor matrices for the North Island and mail survey respondents were compared with those of the South Island respondent group. Rotated factor matrices for the *least effective* questionnaire responses were also compared with those of the *most effective* questionnaire responses. Two,

three and four factor rotations were run on each sub-group. As is discussed below, the initial factor analysis indicated the existence of a very strong general factor. The influence of this general factor was in evidence in the rotated factor matrices, with a number of scales loading at the .40 level or higher on more than one factor. In running the FACTOREP programme the influence of the general factor was reduced by setting the hyper-plane cutoff points at .55 and .60 respectively. The clearest results emerged at the .60 level.

Tables 6:1 and 6:2 show matrices of S-Index values for a two factor solution. The matrix in Table 6:1 provides an index of similarity for North island/mail survey and South Island responses. Table 6:2 compares the factor structures of *most* and *least effective* questionnaire responses. The results illustrated by these tables are very clear. The diagonal values approach 1.00 on both matrices, indicating a high level of replication (for the two factor solution) between the groups. The .111 value recorded between factors one and two in Table 6:1 is indicative of an underlying general factor. The general factor is discussed further below. Table 6:3 shows a matrix of S-Index values for a three factor solution. The lower diagonal values indicate that the three factor solution is less replicable than the two. The confirmatory analysis indicates that the two

TABLE 6:1

MATRIX OF S-INDEX VALUES FOR TWO FACTOR SOLUTION.

NORTH ISLAND/MAIL SURVEY AND SOUTH ISLAND RESPONSES.

(.60 Hyper-plane cut-off point)

North Island/Mail Survey Responses

South Island Responses	Factor One	Factor Two
F1	1.000	0.0
F2	.111	0.875

TABLE 6:2

MATRIX OF S-INDEX VALUES FOR TWO FACTOR SOLUTION.

MOST EFFECTIVE AND LEAST EFFECTIVE RESPONSES.

(.60 Hyper-plane cut-off point)

Most Effective Responses

Least Effective Responses	Factor One	Factor Two
F1	1.000	0.0
F2	0.0	0.933

TABLE 6:3

MATRIX OF S-INDEX VALUES FOR THREE FACTOR SOLUTION.
NORTH ISLAND/MAIL SURVEY AND SOUTH ISLAND RESPONSES.

(.55 Hyper-plane cut-off point)

North Island/Mail Survey Responses

South Island Responses	Factor One	Factor Two	Factor Three
F1	.857	0.0	0.0
F2	.133	.824	0.0
F3	.143	.500	.667

factor solution is the most stable and replicable factor structure for the questionnaire used in this study.

Two Step Procedure

For a variety of reasons (for example unequal sub-scale lengths) it is possible for items and scales to attach themselves to other factors when they might actually form a separate and robust additional factor. Walkey, Green and McCormick (1986) noted this phenomenon in exploring the factor structure of the Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck and Esenck, 1964). As a test for the existence of such additional factors they applied a *two-step* factor analytic procedure (Walkey *et al* 1986, Walkey *et al* 1988). In exploring the factor structure of the Department of Social Welfare Questionnaire it was felt (in line with the findings of Kotter 1982) that the scales *work capacity, personal organisation* and *technical knowledge* could logically have formed a third factor which might be termed *execution* or *application*. As a test of this possibility the two-step procedure, as described by Walkey *et al* 1986, and Walkey *et al* 1988) was applied. In this procedure the three scales were withdrawn from an initial two factor principle components analysis with varimax rotation. The rotated factor matrices then revealed a factor structure similar to those obtained previously. The three scales with the highest loadings on the first and second factors

respectively, were then identified. These six scales, along with the previously withdrawn scales, were rotated to a three factor solution. To test for replicability the same process was repeated for the *most* and *least effective* and for the North Island/mail survey and South Island data sets.

In each case the scale *technical knowledge* loaded strongly and positively on the third factor. The scales *work capacity* and *personal organisation* loaded (as they did in the original factor rotation) most strongly on factor one. The results of this procedure did not support the existence of a third factor containing the scales *work capacity, personal organisation* and *technical knowledge*. They clearly indicated however, that the scale *technical knowledge* stands apart from the two factors identified above. As a consequence *technical knowledge* was dropped from the two factor structure and treated as a separate dimension. The *technical knowledge* dimension, being only one scale, does not constitute a factor in the pure sense. Future references to it, as a factor are used advisedly and for ease of explanation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Rotated Factor Structure

The rotated factor matrices for a two factor solution are shown in Table 6:4. The rotated factor structures for both *most* and *least effective* data sets are shown. The loadings of the scales *work capacity, personal organisation* and *technical knowledge* on the third factor (used in the two stage procedure) are also shown. The two factors account for 70.7 percent of the variance in the *least effective* manager responses and 70.6 percent in the *most effective* manager responses. Table 6:4 indicates that the two factors are by no means discrete entities. On the *least effective* factor matrix, eight of the scales load at the .40 level on both factors and four at the .50 level. On the *most effective* factor matrix, ten of the scales load on both factors at the .40 level and three at .50. These findings indicate the existence of a strong underlying general factor. This issue is discussed further below.

As can be seen in Table 6:4 the scales with the highest factor loadings are virtually identical between the *most* and *least effective* manager ratings. The exception is the scale *overview*, which loads strongly on both factors and reverses its highest loadings between the *most* and *least effective*

TABLE 6:4

FACTOR LOADINGS MOST/LEAST EFFECTIVE MANAGER RATINGS

	Most Effective			Least Effective		
	F_1	F_2	F_3	F_1	F_2	F_3
1. Goal Setting	.78	.32		.86	.20	
2. Personal Organisation	.78	.19	.51	.82	.16	.56
3. Work Capacity	.78	.25	.49	.76	.23	.49
4. Innovation	.74	.36		.70	.45	
5. Assertiveness	.79	.47		.77	.31	
6. Future Orientation	.72	.31		.74	.41	
7. Managing/Operating	.54	.43		.44	.36	
8. Stress Management	.53	.45		.51	.46	
9. Prioritising	.73	.44		.69	.52	
10. Problem Solving	.78	.50		.74	.52	
11. Delegating/Training	.65	.52		.64	.56	
12. Overview	.62	.60		.56	.68	
13. Consultation	.27	.87		.21	.90	
14. Feedback	.28	.85		.16	.90	
15. Team Building	.39	.83		.43	.79	
16. Concern for Others	.30	.79		.39	.78	
17. Personality	.40	.78		.37	.76	
18. Integrity	.48	.67		.37	.71	
19. Technical Knowledge			.90			.89

manager data sets. To produce a factor structure that is identical between the two data sets the *overview* scale is assigned to factor one in both cases. The scale *delegation/training* loads positively on both factors but most strongly on factor one. However, this scale fits most logically in factor two. For this reason *delegation/training* is assigned to factor two in the final model. The resulting factor structure is shown in Table 6.5. The factors comprise scale categories representing (as we saw in chapter five) a range of managerial characteristics and behaviours. In practise these characteristics and behaviours translate into capacity or ability in different areas of the managerial job. For this reason the factors are labelled in terms of the broad *ability* dimensions they represent.

Factor one is comprised of scales falling predominantly in the area of *conceptual* ability. The term conceptual is defined by The New Collins Concise English Dictionary (1986, p.230) as "something formed in the mind". The term conceptual ability as used here, refers to the managers' ability to use their minds in addressing various aspects of the job. All of the scales relate to the inner mental processes of the managers' and conform with the conceptual descriptor. The scales *work capacity* and *assertiveness* fit least happily as they represent a *disposition* to front-up to issues and to work hard, as much as conceptual abilities.

TABLE 6:5

FACTOR ONE (Conceptual Ability)	FACTOR TWO (Interpersonal Ability)	FACTOR THREE (Technical Ability)
Goal Setting	Delegation/ Training	Technical Knowledge
Innovation	Consultation	
Future Orientation	Feedback	
Overview	Team Building	
Managing/Operating	Concern for Others	
Stress Management	Personality	
Work Capacity	Integrity	
Assertiveness		
Prioritising		
Problem Solving		
Personal Organisation		

The conceptual factor arguably falls into two logical sub-categories. These sub-categories are shown in Table 6:6. The first includes the scales *goal setting, innovation, future orientation, managing/operating, overview* and *stress management*. These scales cover the conceptual ability required in setting direction and seeing the job and the organisation as a whole. The *stress management* scale is included in this group on the basis of a relationship, suggested in the interview data (and in numerous in-basket exercises using this material), between *stress management, managing/operating* and *overview*. This sub-category conforms more closely with the definitions of conceptual ability discussed in chapter two (see Barnard 1938, Hemphill 1959, Katz 1974) than does the broader conceptual factor. It is used as a separate *vision* category in chapter seven. The second logical sub-category of the conceptual factor is comprised of the scales *work capacity, personal organisation, assertiveness, prioritising* and *problem solving*. These scales are are shorter term in orientation. They embody the *managerial* qualities required to cope with day to day routine and complexity and see a job through to completion. The first scale group, by constrast, relates more to longer term direction setting and *leadership* (see for example Zaleznik 1977, 1989, Adair 1983, Bennis and Nanus 1985, Bass 1985,1988, Kouzes and Posner 1987, Kotter 1988,1990, Bennis 1989 for a review of key differences between management and leadership).

TABLE 6:6

THE TWO SUB-CATEGORIES OF FACTOR ONE (CONCEPTUAL ABILITY)

Goal Setting Innovation Future Orientation Overview Managing/Operating Stress Management	Setting Direction (Vision) (Longer term "leadership" orientation)
Work capacity Assertiveness Prioritising Problem Solving Personal Organisation	Processing the Work (Shorter term "management" orientation)

The existence of these two sub-categories suggests that conceptual ability may not be the unitary dimension implied by Katz (1974). Conceptual ability as it emerges in this study, appears to contain longer and shorter term elements which call for conceptual skills ranging from the concrete and analytic to the abstract and intuitive. This finding echoes the work of Jaques (1976) who (as we discussed in chapter two) differentiated the different levels of abstraction required within the broad mental/conceptual ability dimension.

Factor two is comprised of scales relating to the manager's interpersonal ability. These scales are clearly interpersonal in nature, with all of them relating to the manager's interactions with other people. This factor is highly stable. During the course of this research dozens of factor analyses were run, ranging from two to six factor solutions with a variety of data configurations. In every case the scales *personality, integrity, team building, consultation, concern for others* and *feedback* loaded most strongly on the same factor. Factor three is self explanatory and refers to the technical knowledge and related technical ability (in terms of policy, entitlements, procedures, technical decision-making and paper work) of the manager.

The factor structure that has emerged in this study conforms closely to the work of Kotter (1982, 1988). As outlined in chapter one, Kotter's (1988) theme is that leaders have two central tasks. The first *agenda setting*, is to create a vision and a strategy for its fulfilment. The second *network building*, is to build and motivate a network of people who can help in implementing that agenda. The two factors identified in this research, neatly encapsulate the conceptual and interpersonal requirements for success in those two tasks. Separating out the *technical knowledge* scale generates a three part structure based on separable conceptual, interpersonal and technical dimensions. This is a typology which is in keeping with those described in chapter two (see in particular Katz 1974, Dakin *et al* 1984). The two/three factor model presented in this chapter, gains credibility in its consistency with previous research findings. The model extends beyond previous research however, in that it is based on managerial effectiveness rather than managerial work, per-se. The use of the nineteen scales in the factor analysis leads to a richer description of each factor than has been offered in previous research. The scale composition also allows different aspects of the model to be examined separately. Overall, the model provides a useful addition to previous work in this area.

Underlying General Factor

As discussed above, the rotated factor structure provides evidence of a strong underlying general factor. The unrotated principal components analysis provides further evidence of a strong general factor. The factor matrices for the unrotated two factor solutions, for *most* and *least effective* manager ratings, are shown in Table 6:7. The general factor is indicated by the scale loadings on factor one. All of the scales load strongly and positively on this factor. The existence of such a strong general factor requires us to view the two/three factor structure identified above with caution. While it has been possible to identify a clear, replicable, factor structure it is also obvious that the respondents see a level of overlap between all of the scales which limits the independence of the three factors.

A possible explanation for such a strong general factor is the influence of halo error resulting from the rating process (see for example Roach 1956). It could be argued that the respondents have given generalized high ratings to *most effective* ratees and generalized low ratings to *least effective* ratees. The result would be a merging of scale ratings which would produce both a strong general factor and the scale interaction discussed in chapter five. In

TABLE 6:7

UNROTATED FACTOR MATRICES MOST AND LEAST EFFECTIVE MANAGER RATINGS (TWO FACTOR SOLUTION)

	Most Effective		Least Effective	
	F_1	F_2	F_1	F_2
1. Goal Setting	.79	.31	.76	.45
2. Personal Organisation	.70	.40	.69	.46
3. Work Capacity	.74	.36	.71	.36
4. Innovation	.78	.24	.82	.16
5. Assertiveness	.84	.14	.77	.31
6. Future Orientation	.74	.27	.82	.22
7. Managing/Operating	.69	.06	.57	.04
8. Stress Management	.69	-.07	.69	.03
9. Prioritising	.83	.18	.86	.11
10. Problem Solving	.91	.17	.89	.14
11. Delegation/Training	.83	.07	.87	.04
12. Overview	.86	-.03	.87	-.10
13. Consultation	.80	-.45	.78	-.51
14. Feedback	.79	-0.42	.74	-.54
15. Team Building	.86	-.33	.86	-.27
16. Concern for Others	.76	-.37	.82	-.29
17. Personality	.83	-.29	.80	-.28
18. Integrity	.81	-.15	.76	-.25
19. Technical Knowledge	---	---	---	---

chapter four we outlined some of the specific measures used to minimise halo error in the respondent ratings. We noted that the questionnaire item polarity was reversed every five items to minimise automatic response patterns. The respondents were also asked to leave at least a few hours and ideally a full day, between *most* and *least effective* manager ratings. It was stressed that we wanted respondents to rate specific managers rather than some idealised embodiment of *most* or *least effective* managing. While it would be foolish to discount completely the possibility of halo error, we feel confident that this strategy was largely successful. The weight of the evidence supports this view. Support for this view comes from the emergence of the three factor structure identified above. While clearly subject to the influence of the general factor, there is evidence of an identifiable and replicable three factor structure. The respondents appear to have rated both *most* and *least effective* managers with sufficient discrimination to allow this structure to emerge.

In chapter five we discussed the results of the Pearson's Correlation analysis, which correlated *most effective* scale ratings with those for *least effective* managers. The correlation coefficients were low and in many cases not significant. A strong halo effect should have produced strong negative correlations between the scale ratings. In chapter five we also noted consistent differences in the

standard deviations of the scale mean scores for the *most* and *least effective* ratings. The implication of these findings was that the respondents in this study viewed and rated *most* versus *least effective* managers, very differently. Such differences would not have emerged so clearly if the data was subject to very strong halo errors. The indications are that most respondents were rating individual managers rather than simply working down one or other extreme of the rating scale. This view gains further support from frequency counts of the number of respondents rating *most* and *least effective* managers on the 1,2 3,4 and 5 dimensions of the five point item scales (on the questionnaire). The frequency counts indicate that, although *most effective* managers tended to be rated on the upper end of the scale and *least effective* on the lower, the respondents used the full scale range in rating both *most* and *least effective* managers.

As mentioned above, it would be unwise to rule out entirely the influence of halo error and (more significantly) restrictions in the range of questionnaire ratings. The extent to which these might influence the level of scale and factor interaction evidenced here and in chapter five, is difficult to ascertain. Overall, the evidence suggests that such influences are not the major contributor to the interaction evidenced in this data. It is our belief that the general factor reflects the same level of interaction

and interdependence between effectiveness characteristics and behaviours that was discussed in chapter five. The respondents in this study did not view management primarily in terms of discrete scale or factor categories. Rather than falling into discrete categories, the characteristics and behaviours of *most* and *least effective* managers are seen by the respondents as a complex interactive *gestalt* of characteristics and behaviours. The tendency is to view all the scale and factor categories as a single entity. While discrete factors have emerged in this study, the general factor is expressive of a strong overall view, both of managerial effectiveness and ineffectiveness. This view colours respondent perceptions and restricts efforts to define discrete categories.

This finding confirms the existence of interaction and interdependence in the characteristics and behaviours of *most* versus *least effective* managers as outlined in chapter five. It is in conformity with the simultaneous, interactive and holistic nature of managerial work described in chapter one and with the interactive factor structures revealed in past effectiveness research (see Roach 1956, Morse and Wagner 1978). There is absolutely no evidence in this study indicating that people construe managerial effectiveness in terms of large numbers of discrete factorial dimensions. The complexity and dynamism of managerial work is such that simpler more general factor

models appear to be the most representative. In this the findings differ from previous factor analytic models such Hemphill's (1959) ten factors, Tornow and Pinto's (1976) twelve factors and even Morse and Wagner's (1978) six factors. The indications of this study are that managerial work and effectiveness is too complex and interactive to fall neatly into large numbers of discrete factors. The simpler more interactive models, such as that offered by Kotter (1982, 1988) would appear to be more realistic.

There is no evidence of confirmatory analysis being used in the factor analyses of Hemphill (1959) and Tornow and Pinto (1976). Morse and Wagner (1978) conducted factor replication studies but each time used the eigenvalue greater than 1.00 criterion to define the factor extraction process. The possibility of a replicated structure emerging with fewer factors was apparently not considered. It seems highly likely that a factor replication study using the procedures employed in this study would fail to confirm the factor structures that emerged in Hemphills (1959) and Tornow and Pintos'(1976) research. Even the six factor model of Morse and Wagner (1978) should be viewed with caution. Morse and Wagner in fact noted a moderate correlation (.27 to .44) between the six factors. This is indicative of an underlying general factor or of a smaller number of factors in the *true* factor structure. Useful as these models are they claim a level of specificity and

discretion in the thinking of their respondents which is unrealistic.

CONCLUSION

The objective of this chapter has been to explore the inter-relationships between the nineteen scale categories. In so doing we have used factor analytic techniques to identify a simple three factor model of managerial effectiveness. The application of factor analytic techniques has achieved this objective by reducing the nineteen scales into a two/three factor structure. The factor structure has a logical consistency and confirms the findings of previous researchers, particularly that of Kotter (1982, 1988) and Katz (1974). It extends beyond previous research in its provision of a rich and detailed description of each of the factor categories. The factor model has clear utility for illustrative and research purposes. The three factors, along with the *vision* sub-category are used in hypothesis testing in chapter seven.

Despite its apparent utility, the existence of a strong underlying general factor necessitates a cautious view of the factor structure. Its replicability and logical consistency are encouraging but it still must be regarded as tentative within the limitations of this study. The factor

structure presented in this chapter evidences the same interactivity that was shown to exist between the scale categories in chapter five. As mentioned in chapter five, this interactivity has significant implications for management development. These implications are discussed in chapter eight.

CHAPTER SEVEN

EXPLORING VARIATIONS IN EFFECTIVENESS DIMENSIONS BETWEEN MANAGEMENT LEVELS

INTRODUCTION

In chapter one we defined our research question as; **"What are the characteristics and behaviours of effective versus ineffective managers and how do these characteristics and behaviours vary between different managerial levels".** In chapters five and six we addressed the first part of this question by defining nineteen scales and three factors describing *most effective* and *least effective* management. In this chapter we address the second part of this question by testing three hypotheses relating to the relative importance of these scales and factors across supervisory, middle and senior management levels. The hypotheses are tested using both interview and questionnaire data. The scale and factor categories serve as dependent variables, with respondent level functioning as the independent variable. Data analysis, the results of this analysis and their implications are discussed below. Unlike previous chapters, the *external networking* scale is included in this analysis.

HYPOTHESES

In chapter one we noted that most studies report an increased emphasis on longer range conceptual skills and tasks (e.g.long range planning, seeing the enterprise as a whole) with movement up the managerial hierarchy (see Hemphill 1959, Mahoney *et al* 1965, Jaques 1976, Pavett and Lau 1983, Luthans *et al* 1985, McLennan *et al* 1987). With this research in mind, the following hypothesis is advanced. For future reference we will call this hypothesis one.

Hypothesis One; It is hypothesized that respondents at the senior management level will place significantly more emphasis on conceptual ability (as represented by scales in the conceptual factor) than respondents at non-managerial and first line supervisory levels.

In contrast to conceptual ability, most empirical research indicates that, in *absolute* terms, emphasis on interpersonal ability is similar across all management levels (Pavett and Lau 1983, Dakin *et al* 1984). With this research in mind the following hypothesis is advanced. For future reference we will call this hypothesis two.

Hypothesis Two; It is hypothesized that there will be no significant difference in the emphasis placed on

interpersonal ability (as represented by scales in the interpersonal factor) between senior management respondents and respondents at non-managerial and first line supervisory levels.

Most of the research reviewed in chapter one indicates a reduced need for specialist technical knowledge and skills with movement up the hierarchy (Hemphill 1959, Thornton and Byham 1982, Dakin *et al* 1984). Coupled with this shift, is the need to adopt a more generalist managerial orientation, particularly at very senior levels (Mahoney *et al* 1965, Dakin and Hamilton 1984). With this research in mind the following hypothesis is advanced. For future reference we will call this hypothesis three.

Hypothesis Three; It is hypothesized that respondents at senior management levels will place significantly less emphasis on technical knowledge (as represented by the technical knowledge factor) than respondents at non-managerial and first line supervisory levels.

In order to test these hypotheses we worked through the following steps.

1. Content analysis of the Repertory Grid interviews;

a. Constructs elicited in the interviews were classified into the twenty scale categories defined in chapter five.

b. Response frequencies for each scale were calculated for non-managers and for managers at supervisory, middle and senior levels. Between level differences in response levels were observed.

2. Use of scale and factor means from the questionnaire data.

a. Scale and factor values were calculated for all respondents.

b. Differences in scale and factor values were observed across non-managerial and supervisory, middle and senior management respondent levels for both *most* and *least effective* management ratings.

INTERVIEW DATA ANALYSIS

Content Analysis

The twenty scales identified in chapter five provided the framework for the content analysis of the interview transcripts. Interview constructs were allocated to scale categories on the basis of their similarity to the scale descriptors provided in Appendix Three. During the interviews constructs were elicited as respondents compared

managers in the level above them, at their own level and in the level below. Each construct was assigned to one of the twenty scale categories. The frequency with which the respondents referenced each scale for each comparison level (i.e level above, below and own level) was recorded. For example, one senior manager identified constructs fitting the *team building* category twice in superior comparisons, three times in peer comparisons and six times in subordinate comparisons. In the analysis only the upwards (superior) comparisons were used, as these were the only comparisons made by managers at all levels.

Content Analysis Reliability Check

A sample of eight interview transcripts were selected for a reliability check of the content analysis. After a brief orientation, three judges used the scale descriptions employed in the initial content analysis to assign interview constructs to the twenty scale categories. The judges worked independently, taking an average of two and a half hours to complete the assignment. The average level of agreement between the judge's assignment and the original analysis was 68.1 percent.

In an effort to determine the factors limiting agreement, between the judges and the original content analysis, forty-

one constructs (on which agreement was 33 percent or less) were examined more closely. A close examination the scale descriptors revealed an error in the *assertiveness* scale description not present in the descriptors used in the initial content analysis. This may have led to the incorrect classification (by the judges) of six of the forty-one constructs. Five constructs clearly conformed to scales other than those assigned by one or more of the judges. The length of the checking exercise and the limited training provided, may have contributed to such errors. An additional four constructs were unclear (due to poor writing and lack of definition) to the point of suggesting no specific classification category.

The remaining twenty-six constructs contained multiple meanings, suggesting that they could equally belong in two and some cases three, scale categories. The following construct is an example; *Gives people personal development opportunities----doesn't provide staff with personal development opportunities*. At one level this construct describes managerial approaches to *delgation/training*. At another level it demonstrates the manager's level of *concern for others*. Both scale categories were in fact nominated by the judges. Both are appropriate nominations. Such multiplicity of meaning was present elsewhere in the content

analysis. Constructs in the *consultation* category, for example, frequently emerged in the context of close contact with a team of people (*team building*). Constructs in the *consultation* category were also, at times, hard to distinguish from those fitting in the *innovation* category. The elements of listening and flexibility implicit in a consultative style also created the ideas and responsiveness necessary for innovation. The point is, that some constructs interact so closely with two or more scale categories that it is difficult to judge which category they should be assigned to. This finding affirms (with chapters five and six), that there is a high level of interaction and interdependence between the characteristics and behaviours associated with effective and ineffective management. This interaction is as important a finding as the scales and factors themselves. The issue of interaction is discussed further in chapter eight.

The reliability check and the additional examination discussed above, clearly highlight the limitations of the content analysis. There are some obvious basic limitations in this analysis that relate to the clarity of the data and the possibility of some constructs falling into more than one category. Evidence of the need for more training and the existence of error on the part of the judges however, suggests that the content analysis is more reliable than the

68.1 percent result indicates. A figure of around 75 percent is probably more accurate. This is a respectable figure for field research of this type and compares favourably with the 60 percent joint observation reliability reported by Martinko and Gardner (1990). Overall, the reliability of the content analysis, while indicating the need for caution in the interpretation of results, was considered adequate for the purposes of this study.

Designation of Management Level

As we discussed in chapter four, the respondents were divided into four management levels. Those below the supervisory Divisional Officer level were referred to as *non-managerial*. The 104 grade Divisional Officer respondents, were classified as *supervisory management*. These managers form the first line of supervisory management. Management positions between the Divisional Officers and up to and including the Assistant Directors, were classified as *middle management*. District and Regional Directors were classified as *senior managers*. The supervisory and middle management classifications are in harmony with generally accepted management classifications (see for example Parsons 1960, Mescon, Albert and Khedouri 1981, Carlisle 1982, Griffin 1984). The senior management

classification is appropriate for the District and Regional Directors who, while responsible for substantial segments of the organisation, lack the operating autonomy that is generally associated with the chief executive *top management* level. The senior management classification used here, is also in line with broader classifications, such as Mahoney *et al's* (1965) *higher levels* category.

Analysis of Variance

The individual frequency scores were used to generate mean numbers of references to each scale by respondents at each of the four management levels. Significant differences in variances (as measured by the Bartlett-Box F-test for homogeneity of variances) and respondent numbers at each level, invalidated the use of parametric analysis of variance techniques. This was particularly a problem with the senior management group which, in the superior comparisons reported here, had only four respondents. As an alternative, the frequency scores were used to calculate scale and factor rankings (over the eighty-eight interview respondents) for each of the four respondent levels. Between level variance in the scale and factor rankings was explored using non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis one way analysis of variance.

Analysis of variance was conducted using the twenty scales identified in chapter five. The factor categories used were those identified in chapter six, namely conceptual, interpersonal and technical. In addition the scales, *goal setting, stress management, innovation, managing/operating, future orientation* and *overview* were combined to form an additional *vision* sub-category which was included in a separate analysis of variance. As discussed in chapter six, the scales in the *vision* sub-category conform more closely with generally used definitions of conceptual ability than do the others in the conceptual factor. As a consequence, between level variation in emphasis on the *vision* sub-category was used as the primary test of hypothesis one.

The Kruskal-Wallis anova is less sensitive than equivalent parametric tests but makes fewer assumptions regarding homogeneity of variance. It was felt to be sufficiently conservative to overcome the difficulties of sample size and variance anomalies in this data. The results are based on interview respondent comparisons of managers in the level above them. Unlike the peer and subordinate comparisons, the superior comparisons were made by respondents at all levels and provided the best base for testing the three hypotheses.

QUESTIONNAIRE DATA ANALYSIS

Mean Score Calculations

Scale and factor mean scores, for *most* and *least effective* manager ratings, were calculated for non-managerial, supervisory, middle and senior management respondent groups. The classification system used in assigning respondents to managerial levels was the same as that used for the interview respondents. The scale categories were the same twenty described in chapter five and used in the interview content analysis. The factor categories were those described in chapter six with the addition of the *vision* sub-category outlined above. As with the interview data, variation in emphasis on the vision category was used as the primary test of hypothesis one.

Analysis of Variance

A series of one-way analyses of variance explored between level differences for each scale. As with the interview data, variations in sample size and standard deviations were also a concern with this data. Heterogeneity of variance was a problem with only two of the twenty scales (as established by the Bartlett-Box F-test). Thus the parametric one-way analysis of variance provides an adequate

test of the significance of shifts in emphasis on the scales and factors between respondent levels.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We will consider separately, the results of both the interview and questionnaire data as they relate to scales in the conceptual, interpersonal and technical knowledge factors. *External networking* is also examined as a separate category.

Conceptual Ability

Interview Results

The scale and factor rankings and Kruskall-Wallis anova results are presented in Table 7:1 and Figure 7:1. As the seniority of the respondents increases *some* of the conceptual scales are referenced more frequently. As can be seen from Table 7:1, the scales *innovation, managing/operating* and *overview* in particular, are emphasized more by senior managers than more junior respondents. This pattern of emphasis is reflected in the movement of the *vision* sub-category (see Figure 7:1) which

TABLE 7:1

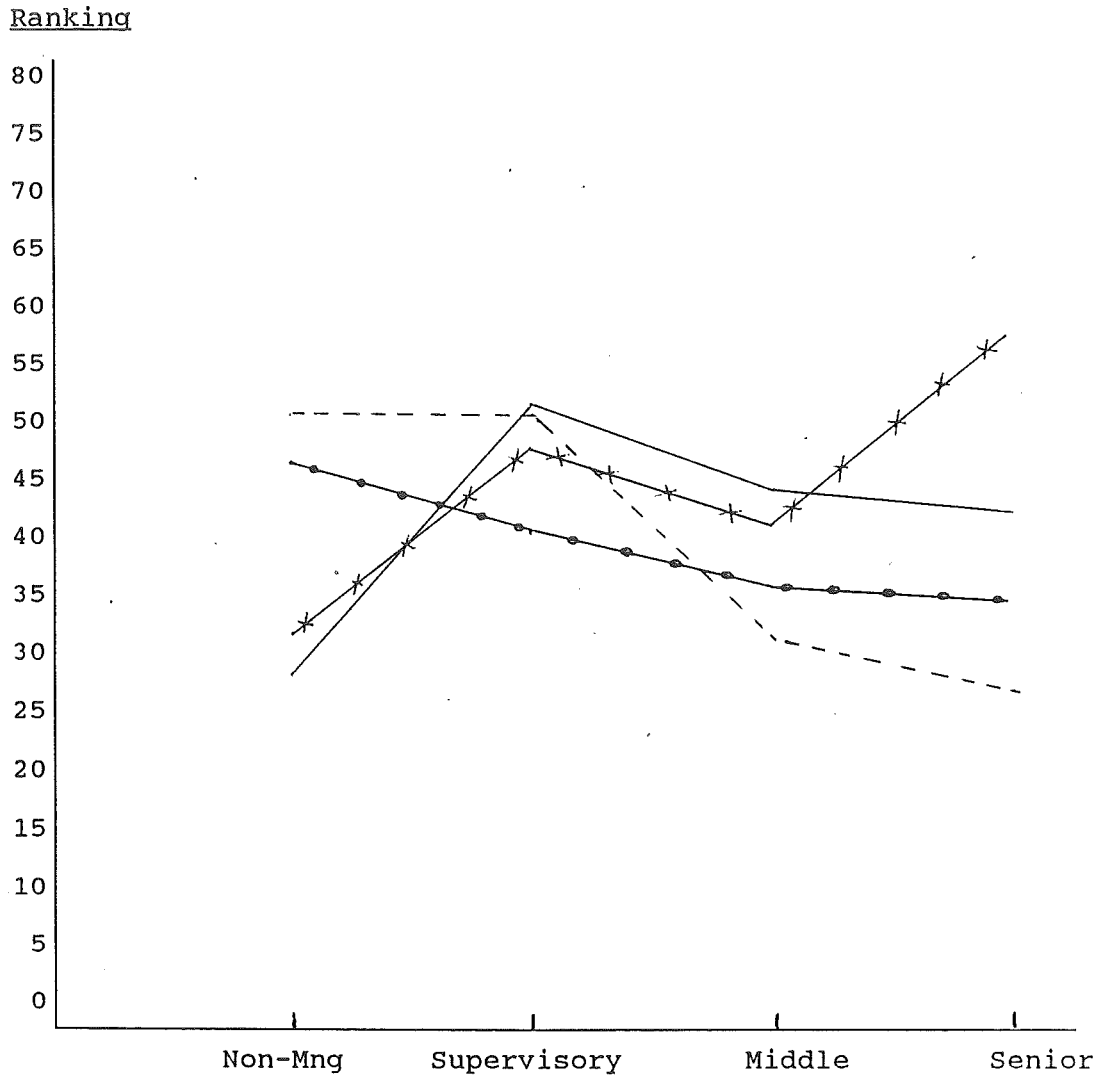
INTERVIEW RESPONSES

AVERAGE RANK OF SCALES AND FACTORS IN DIFFERENTIATING MOST FROM LEAST EFFECTIVE SUPERIORS (BY RESPONDENT LEVEL)

	Non-Mng. Respondents (N= 25)	Sup. Respondents (N=13)	Mid-Mngment Respondents (N=38)	Snr-Mngment Respondents (N=4)	Significance Level
SCALES					
Conceptual Ability					
Goal Setting	35.50	44.69	42.88	35.50	.09
Personal Org	34.50	47.42	43.00	31.50	.06
Work Capacity	40.46	52.73	37.29	31.50	.10
Innovation	32.34	42.46	43.13	60.13	.02
Assertiveness	36.98	45.15	42.08	32.38	.56
Future Orientation	39.50	42.62	40.54	39.50	.53
Managing/Operating	39.74	41.03	40.20	46.25	.85
Stress Management	43.80	47.42	36.49	35.50	.03
Prioritising	39.00	42.15	41.08	39.00	.58
Problem Solving	35.46	50.88	40.13	41.75	.05
Overview	35.76	41.12	42.00	53.88	.19
Interpersonal Ability					
Delegation/Training	44.00	40.46	39.95	24.00	.35
Consultation	37.52	44.15	42.72	26.13	.44
Feedback	45.92	31.77	41.92	21.50	.07
Team Building	45.54	52.92	33.29	37.13	.03
Concern for Others	51.60	59.23	27.04	38.13	.000
Personality	47.98	33.73	37.87	40.75	.19
Integrity	39.90	45.62	39.88	33.50	.50
Others					
Technical Knowledge	46.92	42.19	36.00	35.00	.18
External Networking	38.50	38.50	40.58	58.75	.000
Factors					
Conceptual Ability	28.74	50.92	44.33	43.75	.02
Vision Sub-Category	31.76	47.69	41.99	57.63	.05
Interpersonal Ability	50.86	50.85	31.55	27.13	.002
Technical Ability	46.92	42.19	36.00	35.00	.18

FIGURE 7:1

AVERAGE RANK OF FACTOR CATEGORIES IN DIFFERENTIATING MOST FROM LEAST EFFECTIVE SUPERIORS (BY RESPONDENT LEVEL)



shows a significant increase in emphasis (with movement up the respondent hierarchy) consistent with hypothesis one. However, the scales *personal organisation, stress management* and *problem solving* show a significant, or near significant, trend in reverse of that anticipated by hypotheses one. The trend of these three scales is paralleled by the scales *work capacity, goal setting* and *assertiveness*, which show a definite if not significant decline in emphasis, between supervisory and senior management respondents.

The movement of these scales is reflected in the overall conceptual category (see Figure 7:1) which decreases in emphasis between supervisory and senior management levels. The point of significant variation in this category however, rather than falling between senior and lower respondent levels occurs between non-supervisory and supervisory respondents.

Questionnaire Results

i.Most Effective Manager Ratings

Table 7:2 shows the mean scores of the scales and factors in the questionnaire ratings of *most effective* managers. A higher scale or factor mean score indicates a greater emphasis (by respondents) on that scale or factor. The results shown in Table 7:2 are broadly similar to those

TABLE 7:2

QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSES

SCALE AND FACTOR MEAN SCORES OF MOST EFFECTIVE RATEES
BY MANAGEMENT LEVEL OF RESPONDENTS

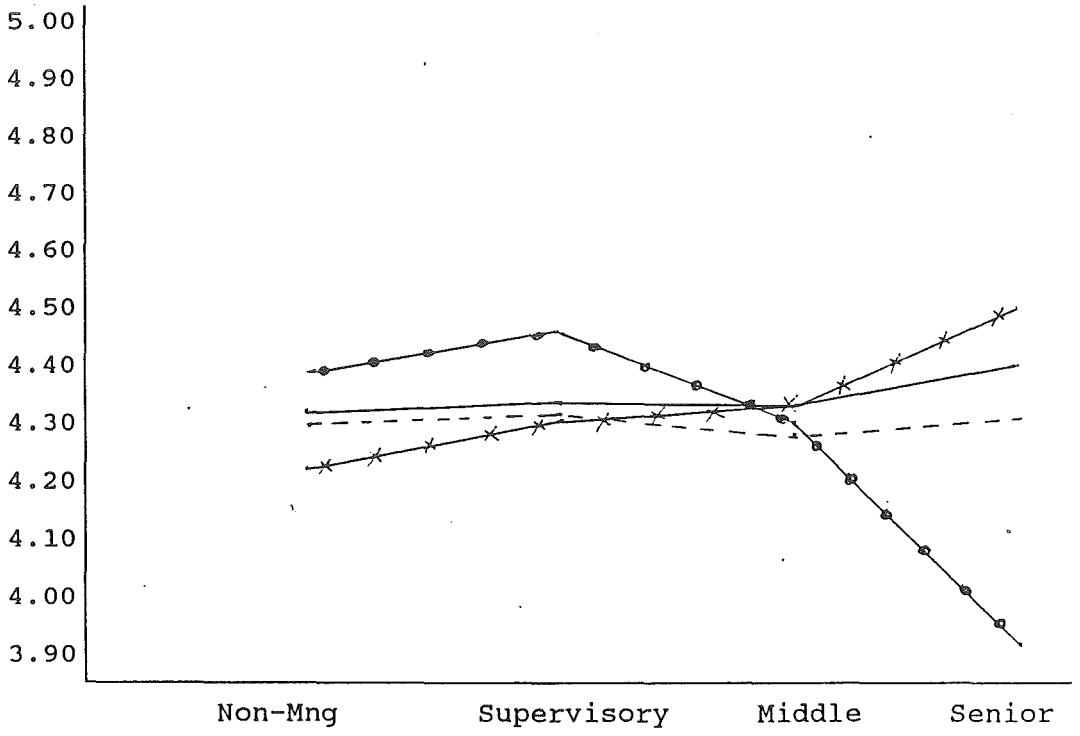
	Non-Mng Respondents (157)	Supervisory Respondents (103)	Mid Mngment Respondents (73)	Snr Management Respondents (28)	Significance Level
SCALES					
Conceptual Ability					
Goal Setting	4.52	4.56	4.55	4.61	.88
Personal Org	4.40	4.38	4.34	4.32	.83
Work Capacity	4.41	4.48	4.52	4.50	.228
Innovation	4.19	4.29	4.34	4.50	.02*
Assertiveness	4.46	4.50	4.54	4.52	.62
Future Orientation	4.33	4.46	4.46	4.52	.07*
Managing/Operating	4.06	4.10	4.30	4.41	.002
Stress Management	4.35	4.33	4.36	4.50	.71
Prioritising	4.39	4.40	4.25	4.28	.13
Problem Solving	4.34	4.38	4.39	4.33	.83
Overview	4.27	4.35	4.39	4.54	.03
Interpersonal Ability					
Delegation/Training	4.30	4.32	4.23	4.28	.73
Consultation	4.31	4.35	4.25	4.31	.63
Feedback	4.34	4.31	4.25	4.29	.68
Team Building	4.38	4.36	4.35	4.27	.80
Concern for Others	4.30	4.37	4.34	4.27	.67
Personality	4.32	4.31	4.25	4.34	.78
Integrity	4.37	4.44	4.36	4.40	.68
Other					
Technical Knowledge	4.40	4.48	4.33	3.95	.004
External Networking	3.40	3.23	3.36	3.94	.002
Factors					
Conceptual Factor	4.34	4.39	4.39	4.41	.64
Vision Sub-Category	4.25	4.33	4.39	4.51	.0160
Interpersonal Ability	4.33	4.35	4.30	4.31	.89
Technical Ability	4.40	4.48	4.33	3.95	.004

*Significant difference in between level variances (Bartlett Box Test)

derived from the interview data. In this case all of the significant shifts are in keeping with the direction suggested by hypothesis one. The scales *innovation, managing/operating* and *overview* display a strong and significant increase in emphasis between lower level and senior management respondents. The pattern of emphasis on the *future orientation* scale is similar but less significant. Some caution is required in interpreting the results of the shift in the *innovation* and *future orientation* as both scales record significant differences on the Bartlett-Box F test for homogeneity of variance (.005 and .037 respectively). Most of the remaining conceptual scales show a trend which is consistent with hypotheses one but which fails to reach significance. The exceptions are *personal organisation* and *prioritisation* which show a definite, although not significant, decrease in emphasis with movement up the respondent hierarchy. These scale variations are reflected in the movement of the conceptual and *vision* categories shown in Figure 7:2. The conceptual factor shows a slight, although non-significant, increase in emphasis between non-supervisory and senior management respondents. The pattern is stronger with the *vision* sub-category and in this case significant (at the .02 level).

FIGURE 7:2

FACTOR MEAN SCORES OF MOST EFFECTIVE RATEES BY MANAGEMENT LEVEL OF RESPONDENTS



———	Conceptual Factor	- Shift not significant
-x-x-x-	Vision Category	- Shift significant at .0160 level
-----	Interpersonal Factor	- Shift not significant
-o-o-o-	Technical Factor	- Shift significant at .004 level

ii.Least Effective Manager Ratings

Table 7:3 shows the mean scores of the scale and factor categories in ratings of *least effective* managers. In contrast to the most effective manager ratings, it is assumed that a *lower* scale or factor mean score implies a greater emphasis on that scale or factor. With the exception of *work capacity*, all of the scales in the conceptual category conform with the pattern of emphasis suggested by hypothesis one. None of the shifts however, are significant. The movement of the scales is reflected in the factor categories which show a non-significant trend which is consistent with hypothesis one (see Figure 7:3).

Discussion

Senior management interview respondents and senior management questionnaire respondents rating *most effective* managers, do place significantly more emphasis on some of the scales in the conceptual category than do non-managerial and supervisory respondents. In particular the scales *innovation, managing/operating and overview* show an increase in emphasis (across both interview and questionnaire data sets) in the direction suggested by hypothesis one. The pattern of emphasis on these scales (in the interview and *most effective* manager ratings) results in a significant

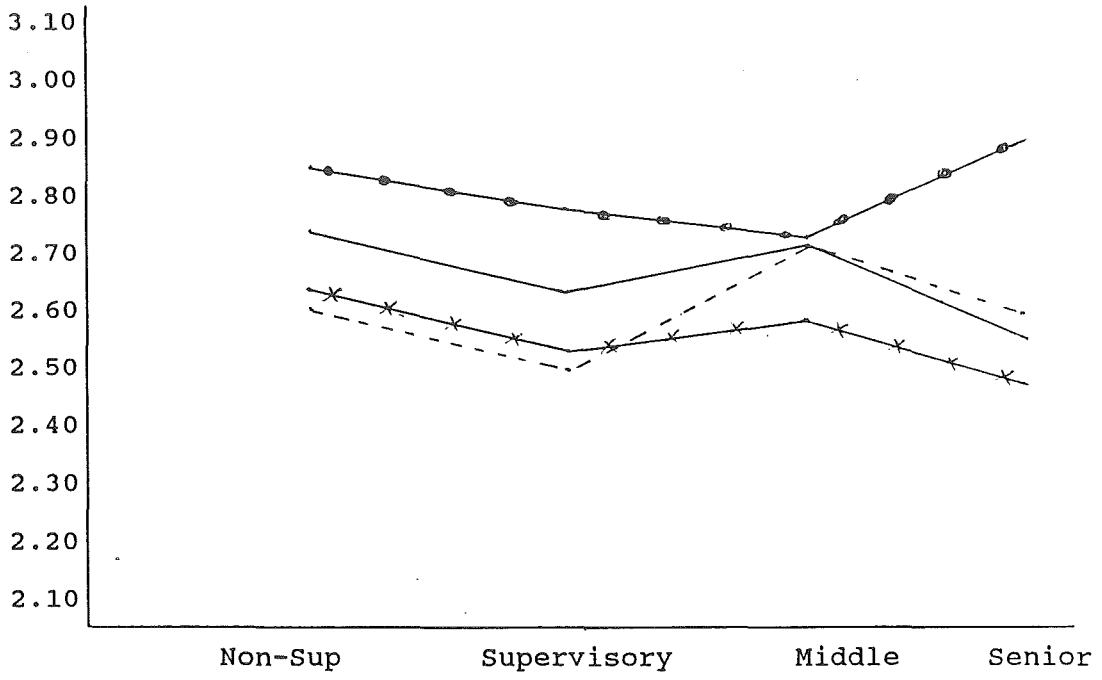
TABLE 7:3

SCALE AND FACTOR MEAN SCORES OF LEAST EFFECTIVE RATEES BY MANAGEMENT LEVEL OF RESPONDENTS

	Non-Mng Respondents (158)	Supervisory Respondents (104)	Mid Mngment Respondents (75)	Snr Management Respondents (23)	Significance Level
SCALES					
Conceptual Ability					
Goal setting	2.76	2.64	2.57	2.52	.37
Personal Organ	2.97	2.94	2.89	2.77	.71
Work Capacity	3.03	3.05	3.22	3.36	.40
Innovation	2.56	2.37	2.48	2.46	.32
Assertiveness	2.86	2.67	2.76	2.54	.12
Future Orientation	2.72	2.56	2.65	2.54	.43
Managing/Operating	2.66	2.56	2.61	2.43	.54
Stress Management	2.56	2.66	2.52	2.50	.96
Prioritising	2.78	2.74	2.65	2.45	.15
Problem Solving	2.68	2.66	2.59	2.37	.22
Overview	2.69	2.64	2.71	2.54	.75
Interpersonal Ability					
Delegation/Training	2.61	2.43	2.62	2.57	.17
Consultation	2.68	2.64	2.76	2.65	.22
Feedback	2.64	2.51	2.71	2.70	.39
Team Building	2.43	2.26	2.47	2.52	.22
Concern for others	2.56	2.36	2.79	2.80	.003
Personality	2.62	2.59	2.76	2.61	.89
Integrity	2.87	2.81	2.91	2.75	.36
Others					
Technical Knowledge	2.87	2.80	2.74	2.91	.82
External Networking	2.27	2.27	2.68	2.88	.0005
Factor Scores					
Conceptual Ability	2.76	2.66	2.71	2.58	.45
Vision Sub-Category	2.65	2.55	2.60	2.50	.56
Interpersonal Ability	2.61	2.51	2.71	2.61	.27
Technical Ability	2.87	2.80	2.74	2.91	.82

FIGURE 7:3

FACTOR MEAN SCORES OF LEAST EFFECTIVE RATEES BY MANAGEMENT LEVEL OF RESPONDENTS



———	Conceptual Factor	- Shift not significant
×—×—×	Vision Sub-Category	- Shift not significant
-----	Interpersonal Factor	- Shift not significant
●—●—●	Technical Factor	- Shift not significant

increase in emphasis on the *vision* sub-category between non-supervisory and senior management respondents. A similar (although not significant) trend is evidenced in the *least effective* manager ratings. Overall, the results provide support for hypotheses one.

It is of interest however, that several of the conceptual scales falling outside of the *vision* sub-category demonstrate a response pattern which is the opposite of that suggested by hypothesis one. In chapter six we contrasted the shorter term more *managerial* nature of these scales with the longer term *leadership* orientation of the conceptual scales in the *vision* sub-category. The tendency of some of these *managerial* scales to receive greater emphasis at lower respondent levels is consistent with the differing character of the conceptual scale categories.

The results reported here, are supportive of reasoning of Katz (1974, p.96) who argued that "conceptual skill...becomes increasingly critical in more responsible executive positions where its effects are maximised and easily observed...at the top level of administration this conceptual skill becomes the most important ability of all". They are also in line with the findings of previous research discussed in chapter two (see for example Hemphill 1959, Mahoney *et al* 1965, Haas, Porat,and Vaughan 1969, Tornow and

Pinto 1976, Pavett and Lau 1983, Dakin, Hamilton, Cammock and Gimpl 1984, Luthans *et al* 1985 and McLennan, Inkson, Dakin, Dewe, and Elkin 1987). However, the findings demonstrate that conceptual ability is not a unitary concept, but contains diverse elements which behave differently at different managerial levels. The scales contained in the *vision* sub-category call for a higher level of abstraction and intuition than do the remaining conceptual scales which imply the need for a more concrete shorter term mental ability. As was predicited by Jaques (1976), the more abstract scales receive most emphasis at senior management levels while the rest are in some cases most emphasised by more junior level respondents.

Interpersonal Ability

Interview Results

Table 7:1 indicates that emphasis on *team-building* and *concern for others* declines significantly with movement up the interview respondent hierarchy. Emphasis on the other interpersonal scales also declines consistently (although not significantly) with movement up the respondent hierarchy. Overall, the decline in emphasis on the interpersonal factor (see Figure 7:1) between lower level and senior interview respondents is strong and significant.

In contrast the *external networking* scale (which seems logically related to the interpersonal scales) shows a strong and significant *increase* in emphasis, between lower level and senior management respondents.

Questionnaire Results

i.Most Effective Manager Ratings

The movement of the people scales used in rating *most effective* managers (see Table 7:2) is more ambiguous. The *team building* and *concern for others* scales show a slight (but not significant) downward trend. Overall, Table 7:2 indicates no significant variation in scale emphasis between questionnaire respondent levels. This pattern of movement is reflected in the movement of the interpersonal factor which shows a only a very slight and not significant, decrease in emphasis between higher and lower respondent levels (see Figure 7:2). The *external networking* scale demonstrates the same pattern of variation shown in the interview data. Table 7:2 shows a strong and significant increase in emphasis on this scale, between lower and more senior level respondents. The mean score of this scale at the senior manager respondent level is significantly greater than that for other groups.

ii.Least Effective Manager Ratings

In the *least effective* manager ratings (see Table 7:3 and Figure 7:3) emphasis on *concern for others* declines consistently (and significantly) with movement up the respondent hierarchy. Emphasis on the scales *feedback* and *team-building* also declines, although not significantly. With the exception of the *concern for others* scale however, neither the scales in the interpersonal factor nor the factor itself demonstrate significant variation between respondent levels. Table 7:3 shows a clear and highly significant variation in emphasis on *external networking*. In this case however the scale receives the greatest emphasis from the more junior respondents.

The movement of the *external networking* scale shown in Table 6:3 needs to be placed in the context of the very low emphasis placed on this scale by all the questionnaire respondents. *External networking* is scale which, overall, receives very little emphasis by the respondents. The very low ratings ascribed to lower level *least effective* ratees, may reflect the perceived irrelevance of external networking at this level, rather than an emphasis on the need for development in this area. The increased mean scores at higher levels may, by contrast, reflect the increased relevance of *external networking* at this level.

Discussion

At first glance the interview and questionnaire results seem contradictory. In actuality, the results reflect the different tasks presented to the respondents. Interview respondents were asked to *differentiate* between *most* and *least effective* managers at the various levels. The interview results indicate that interpersonal ability was less relevant for senior management respondents (in differentiating *most* from *least effective* managers) than conceptual ability. This suggests that interpersonal ability was *relatively* less important in differentiating *most* from *least effective* managers at the senior management level. This does not necessarily reflect a decline in the *absolute* importance of the interpersonal ability category. The questionnaire results in fact, indicate that interpersonal ability is of similar importance at all levels. They indicate that the apparent decline in the importance of interpersonal ability is relative rather than absolute.

In absolute terms interpersonal ability appears to be important at all respondent levels with little variation in emphasis being evidenced. In this sense the results are supportive of hypothesis two. In relative terms interpersonal ability shows a sharp variation between the

respondent levels. At the non-managerial and supervisory levels it is ability in working with people that seems to matter the most. At middle and senior management levels the interpersonal category, while remaining important, is displaced in relative terms by the conceptual and vision categories. This finding conforms directly with the reasoning of Katz (1974) which was supported empirically by Pavett and Lau (1983) and Dakin *et al* (1984). Katz (1974, p.95) states that "human skill, the ability to work with others, is essential to effective administration at every level...[but] as we go higher and higher in the administrative echelons...the need for human skill becomes proportionately, although probably not absolutely less." The results of the study support the finding of chapter two that ability in working with people is a crucial requirement at all management levels. Given the importance of verbal interaction as a working medium it is not surprising that interpersonal ability retains a high level of emphasis at all levels.

The response patterns for the *external networking* scale provide an interesting counterpoint to the interpersonal scales. This is a scale which logically fits within the interpersonal ability area but (with the exception of the *least effective* manager responses) displays a distinctively

different shift pattern. The between level variation in the *external networking* category indicates that the pattern of

emphasis on interpersonal ability may change as the manager moves up the hierarchy. With the exception of the least effective manager ratings, the results of this study support Mintzberg's (1973) contention that interpersonal contacts become more externally focused at more senior management levels. This finding is also supportive of Pavett and Lau's (1983) empirical study on this question.

Technical Knowledge

Interview Results

Emphasis on the *technical knowledge* scale, by interview respondents, declines (although not significantly) in the direction and pattern suggested by hypothesis three (see Table 7:1 and Figure 7:1).

Questionnaire Results

i.Most Effective Manager Ratings

The same pattern is repeated, for the *most effective* questionnaire ratings, with the shift being highly significant (see Table 7:2, Figure 7:2).

ii.Least Effective Manager Ratings

The slight decline in emphasis on *technical knowledge* (see Table 7:3, Figure 7:3) between non-supervisory/supervisory and senior managers is not significant. The pattern of emphasis differs slightly from that anticipated by hypothesis three, particularly with regard to the emphasis placed on the scale by the middle management respondents.

Discussion

The interview results, and the response patterns of respondents rating *most effective* managers, show a clear decline in emphasis on technical ability as the seniority of the respondents increases. The response patterns of respondents rating *least effective* managers however, are more ambiguous and do not indicate a decline in emphasis on technical knowledge. Overall, the results (particularly those relating to ratings of *most effective* managers) provide support for hypothesis three.

The sharp drop in emphasis on technical knowledge between *most effective* middle and senior management respondents

(shown in Table 7:2 and Figure 7:2), may reflect the nature of the middle manager/senior manager (director) transition. Up to the Director level, managers in the Department of Social Welfare work primarily within one of three functional areas (benefits and pensions, administration and social work). At the Director level the manager is for the first time responsible for all three. By the very nature of the organisation's career path it is not possible to have a detailed technical knowledge of all three areas. The interview material indicates that some Directors try to compensate for their unfamiliarity with their new areas of responsibility by maintaining an inappropriate technical involvement with their old area. By contrast, the *most effective* senior managers leave behind their old specialist technical interests and adopt a generalist orientation more suited to their new role. It is at the Director level, as predicted by Dakin and Hamilton (1984) that attaining an appropriate balance between generalist manager and specialist technical roles becomes extremely important. At this level, the maintenance of a generalist/specialist balance may be more important than having high levels of specialist technical knowledge. This would account for the low emphasis on *technical knowledge* by the senior management respondents and the heightened emphasis on *managing/operating* (see Table 7:2).

These findings are in keeping with much of the reasoning and empirical work in this area (see for example Fayol 1949, Barnard 1938, Hemphill 1959, Thornton and Byham 1982, Dakin *et al* 1984, McLennan *et al* 1987). In chapter two, we drew a distinction between technical knowledge in terms of broad industry knowledge and connections (see Kotter 1982, 1988), generalist managerial knowledge (for example of finance and marketing) and specific technical knowledge and ability. The definition of technical knowledge used here is very specific and conforms with the Katz (1974, p.91) technical skill definition as "an understanding of, and proficiency in, a specific kind of activity, particularly one involving methods, processes, procedures, or techniques". It is less likely that these findings would be repeated if a broader definition of technical knowledge, such as that proposed by Kotter (1982, 1988) were adopted. As proposed by Katz (1974), the size of the organisation may also reduce the need for technical knowledge at senior management levels. The numbers of available support staff and the depth of technically competent operators at lower levels, may allow senior managers to function with a level of technical knowledge that would be unworkable in smaller organisations.

CONCLUSION

In chapter two we noted a deficiency in the literature, in its description of specifically effective or ineffective

management. The same deficiency is evident in the literature exploring between level variations in managerial work. Little, if any, of this literature has dealt with between level variations in specifically effective or ineffective management. The findings presented here are significant, in that they are grounded in comparisons and ratings of specifically effective and ineffective managers in the Department of Social Welfare. They make a small contribution to an area of research which to date has been largely "speculative in nature" (Pavett and Lau 1983, p.171).

The results of this study support the finding, outlined in chapter two, that hierarchical level contributes to variations in the importance of managerial characteristics and behaviour. There is a need for caution however, in the interpretation of some of the results of this study. The interview study suffers from some deficiency in the reliability of its content analysis and in the small sample size at the senior management level. Furthermore, a few of the scale variations reported for the questionnaire data may have been influenced by differences in variance between the respondent groups. Additionally not all of the findings are totally consistent across interview and *most/least* effective data sets. Overall however, the study presents a useful set of findings which are supportive of the three hypotheses outlined at the beginning of this chapter.

It is of particular interest to find that the bases of respondent judgements of *most* and *least effective* managers differ in a number of instances. The bases by which respondents judge *most effective* managers tend to vary across respondent levels. The bases by which respondents judge *least effective* managers by constrast, show little variation between respondent levels. This finding adds further weight to the view forwarded in chapter five that there are qualitative differences between *most* and *least* effective management.

CHAPTER EIGHT

REVIEW OF KEY FINDINGS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT AT THE MBA LEVEL

INTRODUCTION

At the commencement of this study we set out to answer the research question **"What are the characteristics and behaviours of effective versus ineffective managers and how do these characteristics and behaviours vary between different management levels"**. We addressed this question in chapters five, six, and seven. In chapter five we described twenty scale categories descriptive of the characteristics and behaviours of effective and ineffective managers in the Department of Social Welfare. In chapter six we reduced the scale categories to a simple three factor model. In chapter seven we used the scale and factor categories as dependent variables to test three hypotheses relating to variations in the characteristics and behaviours of effective/ineffective managers between different managerial levels. These chapters provide a useful response to the research question and help to fill what has been a major deficiency in the

research literature. This chapter reviews some of the key findings of the study and discusses their implications for managerial development.

REVIEW OF FINDINGS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO PAST RESEARCH

Key Abilities Required in Effective Management and Their Relationship to Past Research

In chapter six we presented a three factor model of managerial effectiveness and suggested that the factors embraced three broad areas of ability, namely *conceptual, interpersonal* and *technical*. These three areas of ability underpin effective management in the Department of Social Welfare. As mentioned in chapter five, there is reason to believe that they also have relevance to effective management outside the Department. In this section we look at these areas of ability in greater detail.

Conceptual Ability

In chapter six we suggested that the conceptual ability factor could be devided into two logical sub-categories. Both sub-scales conform to the broad "something formed in the mind" definition of conceptual ability provided in chapter six. They are however suggestive of two distinct areas of ability within the broad conceptual label. The

existence of distinct sub-categories within the conceptual category is supported by the divergence in behaviour (across management levels) between a number of the conceptual scales (see chapter seven). The first conceptual sub-category is comprised of the scales; *goal setting, innovation, future orientation, managing versus operating, stress management* and *overview*. As we mentioned in chapter six, these scales relate to the longer term issue of setting direction for the manager's unit, hence the *vision* title given to this sub-category in previous chapters. Effective managers, as described by these scales can be seen as those who remain calm and don't revert to a crisis *operator* role when under pressure. Rather they are able to avoid getting bogged down in technical/operational detail and maintain a broad longer term overview of their roles in the organisation. From this overview, comes a heightened capacity for innovation, creativity and for anticipating future problems and opportunities. All of these things in turn, contribute to the manager's ability to set clear goals and establish a sense of purpose for themselves and their staff.

The scales in this sub-category differ from the other conceptual scales, in that they call primarily on the manager's *intuitive* ability. The New Collins Concise English Dictionary (1986, p.591) defines intuition as "knowledge or perception not gained by reasoning and intelligence...not

empirically or discursively...instinctive knowledge or insight." Most of the scales in the vision category indicate a need for intuitive ability that extends beyond objective reasoning into higher levels of abstraction of the sort described by Jaques (1976) . In *goal setting*, it emerges in the final vision and direction, articulated by the manager. It underlies the creative thinking in *innovation* and provides the capacity to envision and prepare for an unpredictable future required in *future orientation*. It is also implicit in the balance and *feel* involved in establishing the correct emphasis on *managing* versus *operating* and in maintaining the big picture perspective that comes from *overview*. In all of these areas analytical ability is important, but it is insufficient by itself. These scales require additional insight that can only be obtained intuitively. As mentioned in chapter six the emphasis on vision direction setting and intuition in this sub-category, is more evocative of effective *leadership* than it is of *management*. We also saw in chapter seven that the scales in the vision sub-category (unlike the other conceptual scales) tend to increase in importance as managers progress through the hierarchy. Vision, intuition and abstract thinking of the sort described by these scales appear to more significant for senior managers than for their more junior counterparts.

As we saw in chapter six, the remaining conceptual scales, *work capacity, assertiveness, prioritising, problem solving* and *personal organisation* form a second conceptual sub-category. Whereas the vision sub-category conforms with descriptions of effective leadership, these scales are more related to shorter term action/implementation issues and are more *managerial* in emphasis. Effective managers, as described by these scales have plenty of drive and enthusiasm. They are well organised and this contributes to an ability to balance priorities and concentrate on the task at hand. They have the ability to get to the heart, even of complex problems and fix their basic causes. With a solution in mind they are decisive enough to take action, regardless of how difficult or unpleasant the implementation may be. While the vision sub-category is primarily under-pinned by intuitive ability, the scales in this sub-category call primarily for *analytic* ability. By analytic ability we mean the ability to to think in a clear, rational manner and to apply conventional analytical techniques and problem approaches. This type of thinking is in line with the "concrete" mental skills proposed by Jaques (1976 p.153) as required for lower level management positions. It is of interest that the scales in this sub-category tend to receive greatest emphasis by lower level managerial respondents (see chapter seven).

In summary conceptual ability category can be seen to contain two ability sub-categories, namely intuitive and analytic. The literature reviewed in chapter two places much more emphasis on the interpersonal and intuitive nature of managerial work than it does on analysis. In chapter two the intuitive response mode (Stewart 1982) emerged as a critical mechanism for managing in complex, interactive work environments. Such environments are seen, in the research, as a central characteristic of managerial work (Mintzberg 1973, 1989, Kotter 1982, Stewart 1982, Hales 1986, Bouwen and Steyaert 1990, Brown 1990, Hosking and Fineman 1990). Intuition has recently been strongly and explicitly emphasised as a key requirement of effective leadership. Bennis (1989) for example, devotes a chapter to "Operating on Instinct", which he argues, is central to becoming a leader. Both Bennis (1989) and Mintzberg (1989) argue that intuition is an essential component of effective *whole brain* management. This study lends support to this literature by confirming that intuition is not only a feature of managerial work but is an essential underlying element of *effective* managerial work, particularly at more senior managment levels.

Paradoxically, analysis receives most attention in writing expressing concern about its over-emphasis in managerial teaching (Mintzberg 1989). It is not without support however. Carroll and Gillen (1987) in their affirmation of

the usefulness of the classical planning, co-ordinating, commanding and controlling functions offer some support to analytical approaches. It is present in the technical/specialist skills which are seen to be an important part of the manager's job (Katz 1974, Kotter 1982, Dakin and Hamilton 1986). Analysis is also implicit as a crucial *left brain* aspect of the whole brain leadership emphasized by a number of commentators (see for example Bennis 1989, Mintzberg 1989). Daft (1988) also indicates a need for analytical ability in managerial reviews of *hard* written information, such as reports and computer print-outs. Overall, this study affirms the need for *both* analytic and intuitive ability as part of an effective *whole brain* approach to managerial work. This study indicates that both are essential elements of effective management, with neither being sufficient in themselves. Further, there is some evidence from this study that the two components behave differently across managerial levels with intuitive skills increasing in importance with seniority as analytical skills decline.

Interpersonal Ability

As we have seen in previous chapters, the interpersonal ability factor is made up of the scales *delegation/training, personality, integrity, team building, consultation, feedback,* and *concern for others*. The *external networking*

scale, although not included in the factor analysis, also fits logically in this area. Effective managers, as described by this factor, relate well to other people and are comfortable in interpersonal situations. They are honest and reliable and have a high degree of concern for both staff and clients. They consult regularly with staff and are prepared to change their ideas in response to the input of others. They delegate well, involve others in the operational work and ensure that staff are adequately trained. They provide regular feedback to staff to whom work has been delegated and take care to recognise and reward good work. These managers are highly visible, moving around and interacting with staff and also maintaining contact with clients and people outside of their direct work area. Underlying these managers' interpersonal approach is a de-emphasis of formal authority and an emphasis on positive rather than punitive approaches to feedback and motivation. Motivation is through example and personal *mana*, rather than coercion or formal authority. The net result of this approach is an enthusiastic, even inspired, team, who give of their best and are totally supportive of the manager.

This is a common sense picture of managerial effectiveness at the interpersonal level. It portrays managers with high levels of interpersonal ability, maintaining effective contact with staff and other key people in their networks.

These people have accepted the inherently social and interpersonal process of their work and are able to work within this social process to build a highly motivated and supportive staff team. The same approach has generated high levels of contact with individuals and clients outside of the immediate work group, with additional gains to effectiveness. This picture is in complete harmony with the informal, political, and network driven nature of managerial work highlighted in chapter two (Dalton 1959, Fletcher 1973, Kotter 1982, Stewart 1983, Luthans *et al* 1985, Hales 1986, Hosking and Fineman 1990). It also echoes the social, verbal, and affective work process described in chapter two (Burns 1954, 1957, Guest 1956, Horne and Lupton 1965, Mintzberg 1973, 1989, 1990, Stewart 1976, 1988, Fry, Srivstva and Jonas 1987, Jonas 1987, Hosking and Fineman 1990). The de-emphasis of formal authority, the emphasis on contact, example and equality in the motivation and enthusing of staff, is also in harmony with the leadership literature. As noted by (Kotter 1990, p.105) the emphasis, in the leadership literature is on "alignment" of staff rather than organising, controlling and/or coercing. Put more simply, the patterns of interpersonal effectiveness emerging from this research support popularist prescriptions by consultants, such as Tom Peters (see Peters and Waterman 1984), for leaders who will get out of their offices and contact, coach, facilitate and support their staff and clients.

In chapters five and six we noted the high levels of interaction and interdependence that exist between both the scales and the factors. In chapter five we concluded that this interaction suggests that proficiency on one scale may not only have a short term instrumentality but may be a prerequisite to proficiency in other areas. This conclusion applies to interpersonal ability, more than the other ability dimensions, identified in this research. In chapter five we noted that all of the twenty scales (with the exception of *personal organisation*, and *technical knowledge*) were arguably involved and/or were reliant on some aspect of the manager's interpersonal ability. This meant for example, that the manager's interpersonal ability underpinned and served as a prerequisite to effectiveness in almost all of the scales in the conceptual ability factor. In short, interpersonal ability, although not sufficient in itself, serves as a fundamental *pre-condition* to managerial effectiveness. This finding indicates that interpersonal ability is the most crucial of the abilities identified in this study.

The emphasis on interpersonal ability in this study, comes as no surprise. Even the managerial definition, developed in chapter two, asserts that the *manager* has responsibility, authority and accountability to other *people*. Overall our findings echo the theme, stressed elsewhere in the

literature (for example Jaques 1976, Hales 1986, and Stewart 1986) that, above all, "management does mean achieving objectives with, and by means of, other people" (Stewart 1982, p.109). This study affirms that working with people is not only an essential aspect of managerial work but it is an essential dimension of *effective* managerial work.

Technical Ability

The technical ability "factor", as we have, for convenience called it, is comprised of the single *technical knowledge* scale. As mentioned in previous chapters, this scale refers to the specialist technical knowledge of the manager (particularly of the laws, manuals and procedures that characterise work in the Department) rather than the definition, used by Kotter (1982, 1988), as a detailed knowledge of the organisation's business and networks. Effective managers are described, by this scale, as having a strong technical knowledge of the jobs under their control. They keep up to date technically and are able to assist staff on technical matters. Consequently, they circumvent situations where staff might try to "pull the wool over their eyes" on technical matters.

As with analytical ability, technical knowledge is not a major theme of the literature reviewed in chapter two. It is nevertheless an identifiable and important part of

managerial work. It is seen in the literature (particularly in the broader definition of Kotter 1982, 1988), as an important dimension of managerial work right up to chief executive level (Katz 1974, Kotter 1982, 1988, Hales 1986). The need at more senior levels is to balance technical/specialist skills with conceptual and interpersonal abilities (Katz 1974, Dakin and Hamilton 1986). This same pattern was evidenced in chapter seven, where technical knowledge was seen as most important at supervisory management levels, with a corresponding decline in its importance, with movement up the managerial hierarchy.

The broad ability requirements which underpin effective management in the Department show a clear pattern of emphasis. Overall, they call most strongly for ability in interpersonal relations. In the conceptual area the need is for a balance of intuitive and analytical ability. Finally there is a need for technical knowledge and ability. These findings are in keeping with the thrust of most previous research. Where the findings of this study differ from previous research (particularly Katz 1974) is in their challenge to the unitary nature of the key managerial skills. In this study the different conceptual scales in particular, showed a tendency to behave differently at different levels. This suggests that the Katz (1974) *conceptual skills* category, which has been echoed in

subsequent research (see Pavett and Lau 1983, Dakin *et al* 1984), may be a less homogeneous entity than has been suggested in these papers. The findings of this study, in their emphasis on the interpersonal and intuitive aspects of effectiveness, also lend support to those who have expressed concern about the excessively rational and analytic nature of management teaching at the university level (see for example Hayes and Abernathy 1980, Leavitt 1983, Mintzberg 1989). The discontinuity between the findings of this study and the approach of some business schools is reviewed next.

IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGERIAL TEACHING AND DEVELOPMENT

Criticism of Current Business School Practise

In a (1971) article entitled "The Myth of the Well Educated Manager" Sterling Livingston highlighted the lack of correlation between high grades at the Harvard Business School and subsequent managerial effectiveness. Livingston (1971, p.82) argued that university teaching "overdevelops an individual's analytical ability, but leaves his ability to take action and get things done underdeveloped". Nearly ten years later, Robert Hayes and William Abernathy (1980) suggested that short term, overly analytical, simplistic,

and superficial (due to lack of industry experience) managerial approaches were undermining the effectiveness of U.S organisations. The implication was that the business schools, in their emphasis on rationality and formal analysis, were partly responsible for the decline of organisational performance in the U.S.A. In 1983 Harold Leavitt expressed this view rather more succinctly. He noted (1983, p.2) that "the decline of American management is [so] closely correlated with the rise of the American business school [that] the real source of our malaise must be the educators".

Mintzberg (1989 p.79) in renewing the argument, notes that since Hayes and Abernathy's paper, "business school education [has] become more analytic, not less". Mintzberg (1989, p.80) argues that the modern MBA process is so disconnected from the needs of practising managers that "if those people in business and government who support today's business schools really knew what was going on inside many of them, including some of the best known, really took the trouble, for example to interview the professors at random, they would be demanding revoluntary changes in faculty and curriculum instead of passively writing checks." The leadership literature echos similar concerns, in its stress on the need for the vision and character of *leadership* over the detachment and rationality of *management* (see example Zaleznik 1977, 1989, Adair 1983, Bennis and Nanus 1985, Bass

1985,1988, Kouzes and Posner 1987, Kotter 1988,1990, Bennis 1989).

The claim of these critics is that management teaching at the MBA level lacks relevance to *real world* management and may actually be damaging to long term organisational and national competitiveness. The common theme in these papers is that the weakness of business school teaching centres on an over-emphasis of management as rational, linear, quantifiable, sequential, and analytical. This over-reliance on rationality is seen as coming at the expense of the intuition, insight, wisdom, and "affective empathy" needed in "leading, changing, developing, or working with people" (Livingston 1971, pp 80, 89).

There seem to be at least two reasons for the approach taken by the business schools. The first, (as we saw in chapter two) is that there has been so little research on specifically *effective* management (Martinko and Gardiner 1985, Hales 1986, Stewart 1989) that it has not been possible to build MBA teaching around coherent models of effective managing. The emphasis on rationality has perhaps thrived in the absence of a coherent understanding of the realities of effective managing. The second, is that many teachers of management are not particularly interested in, (or able to teach) *hands-on* managerial skills. Koontz (1980, p.176) notes that unlike the earlier work in management, which was lead by "alert and perceptive

practioners" such as Henry Fayol and Chester Barnard the area is now dominated by "highly, but narrowly trained instructors who are intelligent, but know too little about the actual task of managing and the realities that practising managers face".

Koontz was writing more than ten years ago, but his comments, if anything, are even more relevant to contemporary management teaching. Rising academic standards and demands for publication are producing a generation of management teachers with perhaps even less management experience, than the academics described by Harold Koontz. Such academics are correspondingly less able to teach about *real* management . For many management academics, the attachment is to their discipline and to scholarly research and publication in a firmament largely divorced from the realities faced by practising managers. In the absence of such hands-on experience the tendency is to emphasize skills that relate, not to the practise of management, but to the research demands of their discipline. Hence, the emphasis on rational analysis as the dominating theme of many MBA programmes. The emphasis on individual disciplines and to a lesser extent, the absence of any coherent integrating model of managerial effectiveness, in turn means that many MBA courses are presented as a series of disparate specialist subjects. This can create the impression that management has a separate, sequential, and specialised character rather

than the highly interactive process which has been revealed in this and other research. The call then, is for an integrated teaching process, which reflects the interactive nature of managerial work and effectiveness, rather than increasing subject isolation and specialisation (Koontz 1980, Mintzberg 1989).

Relationship of these Criticisms to this Study

The abilities required for effective management identified in this study have much in common with the prescriptions advocated above and lend support to critics of the MBA teaching process. This is an important finding given that this is a study of *effective* management rather than management or managerial work per se. The criticisms outlined above however, are well known and many (although certainly not all) business schools are improving their programmes in response to them. We cite them in this chapter, not to mount another critique of business school approaches but to provide a current context for the findings of this research.

Recommendations for Management Development at the MBA Level

In this study we have identified an ability mix which sees interpersonal ability as a fundamental prerequisite to effective management. We have also identified a need for a balance of analytic and intuitive ability in dealing effectively with the conceptual demands of the managerial job. Finally we indicated a need for varying levels of technical ability. As indicated above, these findings are in harmony with the literature criticising past business school approaches. The abilities identified in this research, in their emphasis on the interpersonal and intuitive, also lean more toward the *whole brain* approaches advocated by the leadership theorists. We will complete this chapter by drawing from the findings of this study to make some general recommendations for management development at the MBA level. In making these recommendations we are generalizing the findings of this study beyond the Department of Social Welfare. As mentioned in chapter five there is some evidence to support the generalizability of our findings. However, we do recognise the limitations of generalization beyond this specific research setting and acknowledge the consequent limitations of the following

recommendations. Our recommendations for an effective MBA process are structured around the following five areas;

1. Selection

The MBA selection process would place an emphasis on depth of life/industry experience. This would result in an older MBA student population with most participants being, at least, in their thirties. There are a couple of reasons for this. First, there is some evidence that the kind of interpersonal and intuitive abilities identified in this research cannot develop without substantial life and work experience (Ohmae 1982, Agor 1984, Bennis 1989, Mintzberg 1989). Second, although not strongly emphasized, there is some evidence in this study that specialist technical knowledge is a significant aspect of effective management even at senior levels. We are also mindful of Kotter's (1982,1988) assertion that broader technical knowledge, as it relates to an understanding of specific organisational/industry networks, nuances and politics, are important, even at senior management levels. Neither specialist nor broader technical knowledge, as described by Kotter (1982,1988), can be taught on an MBA. The foundations in these areas need to be laid before individuals enter the programme.

There is no evidence in this study that effective managers require extraordinarily high levels of intelligence. The conceptual demands of effective management, along with the academic requirements of the MBA however, suggest the need for at least moderate intelligence. Overall, we would agree with Mintzberg's (1989) call for selection processes which attempt to balance intelligence, past success in management and a genuine interest in a career in managing people (as opposed to *things*). To attract people with high levels of work experience, the structure of the MBA would need to reflect the pressures and time demands of the managerial practioner. This would suggest the need for highly focused course offerings, perhaps offered in modularised forms.

2. Technical Base

We would build on this experience base a solid grounding in the core functional disciplines, for example, of marketing, finance, computing, quantitative methods, human resource management, economics, and production. This would add to the manager's industry specific technical knowledge, a generalist technical grounding (as discussed in chapter two) in the key disciplines most needed at the general management level. This would be a highly focussed *prescriptive* offering concentrating on specific techniques that the manager could apply, or at least understand, in each area. The intent would be to give the manager the range of generalist skills necessary to successfully make the

transition between lower level operationally driven positions and more senior generalist management jobs. Aspects of this transition are illustrated by the *manager versus operator* scale described in Appendix Three. The emphasis in this part of the process would be primarily analytical.

3.Descriptive Material

Mintzberg (1989) argues that we have no right (as management educators) being prescriptive, outside of the manager's specific context. We would respond to Mintzberg's argument by making a part of the MBA process *descriptive* in nature. We would use the findings of our own research and that of others to provide a thorough descriptive picture of the organisational, decision-making, strategy setting, work and external environments which characterize the manager's world. We would particularly emphasize the interpersonal and intuitive dimensions of effective managerial work processes. Our aim would be to encourage reflection and insight on the part of the student. The *prescriptive* learning would come as students related the research, theory and the experiences of other managers to their own problems and practises. We would stimulate this process by developing case examples from the managers' own experience and by assessment, based largely on project work inside local organisations.

4. Skill and Ability Development

We would use the findings of this and other research on managerial effectiveness to build an experiential workshop programme to develop specific skills and abilities. The emphasis here would be on interpersonal abilities in the context of the other skill areas suggested by the twenty scale categories. We would also develop exercises which would allow students to develop their intuitive abilities and creativity both directly and through personal growth workshops. The experience base of the students would enable the exploration of issues surrounding intuitive practises in a way unavailable to younger student populations.
Analytical skill development is strongly emphasized in the functional disciplines offered in the technical base (see above) and would not require specific attention in these workshop experiences.

5. Integration

A repeated theme of this study has been the interactive and interdependent nature of effective management. This finding

along with the work of Koontz (1980) and others, suggests a need for an integrated teaching process which invites students to apply the insights of a diverse range of disciplines simultaneously. Papers on *general* and *strategic management* would be at the heart of the integrating process. Additional integration could be achieved through exercises, computer simulations, cases (based on the students own experiences) and projects which present problems demanding a range of abilities and understandings, rather than emphasizing one or other of the core disciplines. Overall, this process could provide a core integrating medium for the MBA and would provide a much more realistic model of the real world.

These recommendations are offered as initial (and fairly ordinary) thoughts on what is a complex topic. However ordinary they appear, it is our feeling that their implementation could lend useful improvement to many MBA programmes. If we are to believe the business school critics, this approach, even in the relatively orthodox form suggested here, is at variance with many MBA programmes. In such a pivotal time for our organisations and our societies it is disturbing to think that so many of our developmental efforts run contrary to fundament principles of managerial effectiveness. The need is for more developmental approaches based on research into the effectiveness of practising managers. It is time that the findings of such

research were acknowledged and the offerings of our MBA degree programmes modified accordingly.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In this chapter we have reviewed some of the key abilities that underpin managerial effectiveness, in the Department of Social Welfare. We have also been able to draw some implications from our findings, for *hands-on* management development at the MBA level. As we saw in chapter five, the findings of this study have also provided the basis for a successful management development effort within the Department of Social Welfare. As the reader will recall, we set out at the beginning of this study to answer the research question; **"What are the characteristics and behaviours of effective versus ineffective managers and how do these characteristics and behaviours vary between different management levels"**. In this and previous chapters, we feel we have made a useful contribution to the understanding of this question. This is but an initial study in this area however, and there remains much to be done in the exploration of managerial work and effectiveness.

The major opportunities for future research have been clearly defined by Martinko and Gardner (1985) Hales (1986) and Stewart (1989), in their review papers. As we saw in chapter two, all of these papers highlight the need for more research on the characteristics and behaviours or, in Stewart's (1989, p.5) terms "thoughts and actions", of specifically effective managers. This is an area that will need continuing research attention for the foreseeable future.

As we saw in chapter two, there is general agreement, in the literature, that the content and process of managerial work varies across management levels, job types, organisations, environments and cultures (Burns 1957, Dubin and Spray 1964, Horne and Lupton 1965, Nath 1968, Child and Ellis 1973, Mintzberg 1973, Boyatzis 1982, Stewart 1982, 1988, Pavett and Lau 1983). Rosemary Stewart argues that the differences between managerial jobs are qualitative in nature and are so great, that they defy attempts to explore variations using standardised or generic typologies. Stewart (1982, p.79-80) writes; "My original hope was to develop a single typology to differentiate managerial jobs...but now I think that managerial jobs are too varied and consist of too many different aspects for that to be useful."

It is interesting, given the strength of Stewart's argument, that the findings of this research provide tentative support for a *generic* model of managerial effectiveness. It is

possible that a comprehensive typology of effectiveness categories could have application across a wide variety of managerial settings. It may be that, while managerial jobs are subject to great variation, the skills and abilities needed to handle them are more finite and generalizable in nature.

Little if any research has been done comparing the characteristics and behaviour of effective managers across different settings. There is a need therefore for research which explores the issue of effectiveness and the skills that underpin effective managing, across a variety of settings. This research could provide a test for the development of generic models of effective managing. Chapter seven of this study makes an initial contribution in this area of research.

Such research could also (as advocated by Stewart 1989) look at the impact of the job and job context on the effectiveness of the individual manager. It could be possible to build a contingency model of managerial effectiveness which explored the "fit" between the characteristics and behaviour of individual managers and the situations encountered on the job. Such a contextual approach could also be used to explore effectiveness in terms of the organisational environment using frameworks, such as Stewart's (1982) demands, constraints and choices model.

Finally, the issue of interaction, within the dimensions of effectiveness, is clearly an area worthy of further research. The concept of interaction, within the different dimensions of managerial work and effectiveness, has been strongly emphasized in this study and is fairly well established in other research (see for example Kotter 1982, Mintzberg 1990). Little is known however, about the direction or impact of those interactions and negligible research has been done in this area. The assumption outlined in chapter five for example, that interpersonal ability operates as the main prerequisite to managerial effectiveness needs further testing. Research efforts in this area would benefit from a mode of enquiry different to that adopted in this study. It is our feeling, that the major breakthroughs in the field of management effectiveness will in future, be driven by qualitative research rather than the quantitatively orientated methods employed here. Such methods will also be required as more understanding is sought on the intuitive aspects of managerial effectiveness.

These then are some of the areas that hold potential for further fruitful research. As mentioned in chapter one, research on managerial effectiveness can be both exciting and socially beneficial. Given the immense pace of change that characterizes late twentieth century life, such research is essential, if we are to retain our relevance as management educators and developers. This chapter brings

this thesis to a close. It is hoped that it will provide a useful contribution to present understanding and future efforts in this important area.

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APPENDIX ONE

Open, shares financial information.	Won't share financial formation.
high level of technical competence.	Low level of technical competence.
Establishes a network of contacts and filters to act as buffers between dept and community (eg on Maori issues).	Establishes no contacts no filters or constraints. Takes the Maori problem up to himself.
Strong external networks.	Poor external networks.
Low profile in the community.	High profile in the community.
Sees his authority in the intent of the legislation.	Sees his authority in procedures and regulation.
Makes decisions on files within three minutes.	Procrastinates decisions when there is no need.
Understands the original intent of the legislation.	Loses sight of the original intent.
Understands the real needs of clients, people.	Unable to understand the real needs/situation of clients.
Knows what the real purpose of the Department is to humanity.	Has lost sight of the real purpose of the department.
Knows how to work the system to benefit the people.	Inflexible approach.

APPENDIX TWO

IIIA

MANAGEMENT EFFECTIVENESS STUDY

In this study we are seeking to identify the factors which make for effective management in the Department of Social Welfare. To help us do this we have compiled a questionnaire which contains the ideas of nearly 100 non-management and management staff about practices which distinguish effective from less effective managers in the Department. Altogether the questionnaire contains 170 items.

We would be grateful if you would go through these 170 items **twice**: first, would you think about the **least** effective manager that you are or have been involved with **in the level immediately above your present level** and rate him or her on the questionnaire entitled "Least Effective Manager"; would you then think of the **most** effective manager that you are or have been involved with at the level immediately above your present level and rate them on the second questionnaire entitled "Most Effective Manager".

Please try and identify people you have observed closely and remember to use people who are or have been in the level immediately above the level you occupy now e.g., if you are an assistant director then you would rate directors.

Each item consists of one idea about management which is expressed in both a positive and negative way. For example, the idea may be:

Highly intelligent |__|__|__|__|__| Rather slow

Your task is to place a check ( ) on the line to indicate how you would describe the person you are rating.

Be sure to finish rating one person completely before you start rating the second person. It would be useful if you could leave a few hours or even a day between rating the two people. In this way your rating of the second person is less likely to be affected by your recollections of the first person. On completing the questionnaires, please check to see that you have completed all of the items.

The results of the survey are completely confidential, and to ensure full confidentiality please do not include the names of the people you are rating. We would appreciate it however if you could write the grade level and management title e.g., 104 Divisional Officer of the managers being rated in the space provided on the top of each of the questionnaires. Could you also write your own name, grade, position and work area in the space below. We need this information to determine the management levels being rated and to keep track of the people and areas of the Department that have completed the questionnaires. A member of the survey team will collect the questionnaire when you have completed it. Thanks for your help.

Peter Cammock
BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

Name: _____ Grade: _____

Position: _____ Work Area: _____

PART ONE

LEAST EFFECTIVE MANAGER

Management Level and Title: _____

(Please do not write name)

1.	Insists on high performance standards from staff.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Sometimes lets substandard work through.
2.	Maintains a high standard of housekeeping; keeps work area tidy.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Sloppy in housekeeping; maintains an untidy work area.
3.	Has natural leadership ability and takes command easily.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Lacks natural leadership ability an is reluctant to take command.
4.	Has a realistic view of his/her own ability.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has an urealistic view of his/her own ability.
5.	Looks for new approaches, ideas and opportunities.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Satisfied with the status quo.
6.	Will not back down when wrong or backs down with bad grace.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Will back down gracefully when wrong. wrong.
7.	Tends to buckle in an argument.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Sticks to what she/he believes in.
8.	Poor listener; discourages discussion.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Listens well and encourages discussion.
9.	Little basic education and/or training; self-taught.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Strong formal education and/or training; has a trained mind.
10.	Slow learner.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Picks things up quickly.
11.	Willing to learn.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Unwilling to learn.
12.	Makes careful decisions backed by evidence; thinks before acting.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Makes hasty decisions and ignores information; acts before thinking.
13.	Puts in extra time and effort when required.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Puts in the minimum time and effort required.
14.	Encourages staff's participation in decision making; asks and suggests.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Autocratic approach to decision-making; tells and demands.
15.	Has a high level of drive and ambition.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Lacks drive and ambition.
16.	Goes to pieces under pressure and gets priorities mixed.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Remains calm and maintains priorities under pressure.

17.	Poor team leader.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Team-oriented and keeps their team together.
18.	Plays favourites or picks on staff he/she doesn't like.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Treats everybody the same even those he/she has problems with.
19.	Doesn't get too involved with staff. Able to exercise authority.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Too much "one of the boys" to exercise authority.
20.	Lacks respect, goodwill and support from his/her staff.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has the respect, goodwill and support of his/her staff.
21.	Supports and backs up her/his staff; brings out the best in them.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Criticises and complains about her/ his staff; brings out the worst in them.
22.	Delegates well and involves others.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Does not delegate enough. Tries to do too much him/herself.
23.	Works alongside his/her staff when necessary (e.g., when overworked or having difficulty).	|__|__|__|__|__|	Reluctant to pitch in and help.
24.	Buffers and protects her/his subordinates from outside pressures.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Passes outside pressure to her/his subordinates
25.	Puts him/herself out to help others.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Reluctant to help others.
26.	Does not follow-up or check on work once delegated.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Follows-up and checks on work he/she has assigned.
27.	Keeps his/her knowledge and experience to him/herself.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Happy to share his/her knowledge and experience with others.
28.	Has little respect or confidence in his/her staff.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Respects the abilities of his/her staff.
29.	Keeps her/his staff in the dark.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Keeps her/his staff informed.
30.	Delivers reprimands in private.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Reprimands people in public.
31.	Recognises and rewards good work.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Doesn't give sufficient recognition or reward for good work.

32.	Sensitive to the feelings of staff	|__|__|__|__|__|	Insensitive and blinded to the problems of staff.
33.	Fronts up to problems; assumes responsibility if things go wrong.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Makes excuses for problems; looks for a scapegoat.
34.	Observant; aware of the skills and potential of his/her staff.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Unobservant; doesn't recognise the skills and potential of his/ staff.
35.	Sells ideas well; able to make others enthusiastic.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Unable to sell ideas; turns others off.
36.	Devious and does not give straight answers.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Straightforward and honest.
37.	Hard to talk to and has difficulty relating to people.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Easy conversationalist and mixes easily with people.
38.	Does not define duties and responsibilities clearly enough.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Defines duties and responsibilities clearly.
39.	Goes behind other peoples' backs.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Uses open channels of communication.
40.	Fixes problems him/ herself rather than training others.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Takes time to train others.
41.	Always available when needed.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Often hard to find when needed.
42.	Reliable; keeps his/her promises.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Unreliable; makes vacant promises.
43.	Does not ask people to do things they will not do themselves; leads by example.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Asks staff to do things which he/she cannot or will not do; leads by direction.
44.	Ensures that people are trained in a wide range of skills.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Allows him/herself to become too dependent on a few subordinates.
45.	Accepts criticism well.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Takes criticism personally.
46.	Methods and production oriented.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Results and customer oriented.
47.	Breaks confidences.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Keeps confidences.

48.	Spends too much time out of circulation; gets out of touch.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Moves around and keeps an eye on things.
49.	Backs away from tough decisions.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Takes tough decisions.
50.	Moody and temperamental.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Stable temperament.
51.	Has a broad understanding of different areas of the company and their needs.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Cannot see past his/her own area nor understands others' needs.
52.	Encourages and supports staff with problems.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has a low tolerance for staff with problems.
53.	Good sense of humour.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Takes him/herself too seriously.
54.	Self-controlled and disciplined.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Lacks self-control; undisciplined.
55.	Outspoken.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Quiet.
56.	Feels insecure in her/his position.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Feels secure in her/his position.
57.	Knows few of the jobs under his/her control. His/her staff are better informed about the work than he/she is.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Can do most of the jobs under his/her control. His/her staff can't "pull the wool over his/her eyes".
58.	Poor at planning, organising and scheduling work.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Good at planning, organising and scheduling work.
59.	Theoretical in her/his approach; rather impractical.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Down to earth and practical
60.	Has difficulty in breaking from his/ her old job.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Able to leave his/her old job behind.
61.	Has strong technical knowledge in his/her area; keeps up to date with technical matters.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has limited technical knowledge in his/her area; gets out of date on technical matters.
62.	Copes with routine; sticks with monotonous jobs.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Avoids routine and systems; easily bored.
63.	Does not allow his/her work and private life to interfere with one another.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Allows his/her work and private life to interfere with one another.

64.	Works for the good of the department.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Runs the department down.
65.	Flexible; will bend the rules if it will get the job done better.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Inflexible; won't bend the rules even if following them rigidly causes inefficiency.
66.	A poor record-keeper; forgets and loses things.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Good record-keeper; writes things down and knows where to find them.
67.	Shows little initiative and waits for work to come to him/her.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Self-starter. Shows initiative and looks for extra work.
68.	Gets bogged down in detail; loses the "big picture".	|__|__|__|__|__|	Avoids getting bogged down in detail; maintains the "big picture".
69.	Ineffective in handling multi-cultural issues.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Effective in handling multicultural issues.
70.	Not prepared to assume responsibility for decisions.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Prepared to assume responsibility for decisions.
71.	Good sense of priorities and concentrates on the task in hand.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Little sense of priorities and easily sidetracked.
72.	Looks ahead and anticipates problems.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Lives from assignment to assignment; fails to anticipate problems.
73.	Maintains contact with other managers.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Avoids contact with other managers.
74.	Stands back from the work to get an objective view.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Too close to the work to be objective.
75.	Will negotiate with superior for realistic budgets and targets.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Accepts targets and budgets without question.
76.	Poor at balancing work; concentrates on one thing to the exclusion of others.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Able to balance the competing demands of work.
77.	Supervises too closely.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gives people room to make their own decisions.

78.	Lacks a broad vision; shows narrow judgement in his/her decisions.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has a broad vision of the enterprise which helps to guide his/her decisions.
79.	Unable to present ideas systematically and logically. Cannot explain complex issues in practical terms.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Presents ideas clearly and logically. Able to explain complex issues in practical terms.
80.	A technical specialist rather than a manager.	|__|__|__|__|__|	A manager rather than a technical specialist.
81.	Thinks each problem through carefully; doesn't rely too much on past experience.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Fails to think problems through; relies too much on past experience.
82.	Able to handle several problems at once.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Unable to tackle more than one problem at a time.
83.	Good understanding of financial matters.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Little understanding of financial matters.
84.	Recognises when she/he is in difficulty; seeks help or renegotiates targets.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Doesn't know when she/ he is out of her/his depth; leaves it too late seeking help.
85.	Tackles unpleasant but necessary tasks.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Avoids tackling unpleasant tasks.
86.	Disorganised - has difficulty finding answers to even routine enquiries.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Knows where to look for the answers to questions; has the answers at his/her fingertips.
87.	Needs to have goals set for him/her. Doesn't really know where he/she is going.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Able to set own goals and work towards them. Knows where he/she is going.
88.	Resists new ideas.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Accepts new ideas.
89.	Lacks conceptual skills. Cannot imagine the implications of new developments.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has good conceptual skills. Can visualise the implications of new developments.
90.	Repeats mistakes.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Learns from mistakes.
91.	Has a good understanding of overall corporate objectives.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has little appreciation of over-all corporate objectives.

92.	Optimistic, positive outlook.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Pessimistic, negative outlook.
93.	Has family support.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Lacks family support.
94.	Never lets work get on top of him/her.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gets weighed down worrying about work.
95.	Appears confident. Has bearing and presence.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Lacks self-confidence and bearing.
96.	Pays little attention to detail. Has a "broad brush" approach.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Pays good attention to detail.
97.	Too easily persuaded by others' arguments.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Listens to others but keeps an open mind.
98.	Poor at accepting and implementing decisions which have gone against him/her.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Is able to accept and implement decisions which have gone against him/her.
99.	Does not question well, and accepts things at face value.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Questions effectively and gets to the truth.
100.	Poor at negotiating.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Good at "wheeling and and dealing"; a good negotiator.
101.	Makes firm decisions and doesn't look back.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Constantly questions past decisions.
102.	A great capacity for work.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Limited capacity for work.
103.	Allocates time effectively. Methodical.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Does not allocate time well. Less methodical.
104.	Shows good performance against targets and deadlines.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Poor performer against target. Misses important deadlines.
105.	Future-oriented; looks ahead and thinks in the long term.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Can't visualise the future. Thinks in the short-term.
106.	Finds reasons why things can't be done.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Willing to try. Looks for ways to make things happen.
107.	Loses sight of what is important.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Able to keep sight of the "bottom line".
108.	Lets things ride.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has a sense of urgency; Pushes for results.

109.	Confused if has to deal with too much information.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Can sort through a mass of information and reach appropriate conclusions.
110.	Uncreative. Rarely comes up with ideas.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Creative thinker. Has more ideas than others.
111.	Concerned with getting the job done.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Concerned with impressing people.
112.	Gathers the critical information. Minimises paperwork.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gathers too much information. Wages a paper war.
113.	Gets to the bottom of problems and fixes the basic cause.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Crisis manager. Fights fires and doesn't fix the basic cause.
114.	Thrives on change and challenge.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Avoids change and challenge.
115.	Pursues objectives patiently.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Impatient - tries to do too much at once.
116.	Maintainer of existing services.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Able to start new operations; an entrepreneur.
117.	Doesn't train successors. Only he/she knows his/her job.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Grooms successors. Insists that others know his/her job.
118.	Destructive and aggressive in criticism.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gives constructive feedback. Able to criticise without putting people down.
119.	Tends to feel inferior to competent subordinates.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gathers competent people around him/her.
120.	Holds grudges.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Doesn't hold grudges.
121.	Able to work without supervision.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Needs supervision and guidance.
122.	Decisive.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Indecisive.
123.	Flexible and easy to reason with.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Rigid and closed-minded.
124.	Uses information she/he gathers efficiently.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gathers information but doesn't use it efficiently.
125.	Shows pride in work.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Lacks pride in work.

126. Clashes with other managers.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Cooperates with other managers.
127. Spends too much time on one area to the detriment of others.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Spends appropriate time on all the areas under his/her administration.
128. Her/his heart is not in the job; slap-happy and and unconscientious.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Wants to do the job well; has enthusiasm for the job.
129. Won't push staff interests to senior management. Won't fight on behalf of staff.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Prepared to stand up to senior management and fight on behalf of/ staff.
130. Doesn't handle pressure and stress well.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Able to handle pressure and stress.
131. Doesn't feel she/he has to defend her/his right to be in charge.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Always defending her/ his right to be in charge.
132. Does his/her fair share of the work. Doesn't delegate unfairly.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Delegates work he/she should be doing him/ herself.
133. Consults with staff before introducing changes.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Imposes changes without consulting staff.
134. Has a clear idea of the the results he/she wants to achieve.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Little idea of what he/ she is trying to achieve.
135. Able to see the complexities of issues and problems.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has a black and white mentality. Can't see the complexities of issues and problems.
136. Doesn't really manage; "just another worker".	|__|__|__|__|__|	Actively manages. Not "just another worker".
137. Doesn't stick to an agenda in meetings. Doesn't give enough structure or direction to meetings.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Sticks to an agenda in meetings. Allows for interaction but gives direction and structure to meetings.
138. Only approaches staff when things are not not to her/his liking.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Regularly approaches staff to see how they are getting on.

139.	Won't listen to staff with different views.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Allows staff with different views to argue their case. Listens to them.
140.	Deadens staff enthusiasm. Not inspirational.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Makes staff enthusiastic. Inspirational.
141.	Interested in developing staff as individuals.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Little interest in developing staff as individuals.
142.	Concerned about the overall work effectiveness of staff.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Nitpicks over minor things having little impact on the overall work effectiveness of staff.
143.	Takes into account staff workloads and abilities before delegating.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Doesn't take into account staff work-loads and abilities before delegating.
144.	Will fight behind the scenes for clients.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Will not fight behind the scenes for clients.
145.	Defines goals and objectives. Gives his/her unit a clear sense of purpose.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Fails to define goals and objectives. His/ her unit has no clear sense of purpose.
146.	Tends not to change ideas and decisions as a response to staff input.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Will change ideas and decisions in response to staff input.
147.	Interacts with just a few staff members. Remains remote from the rest.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Interacts with all of the staff.
148.	Doesn't get to the root of problems. Waffles.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gets to the root of problems quickly. Incisive.
149.	Doesn't get satisfaction from the job. Lacks motivation.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Is involved and motivated by the job. Sees it as a career.
150.	Overly dependent on consultation. Unwilling to make a final decision.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Consults but is prepared to make a final decision where necessary.
151.	Encourages staff to take initiative.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Staff initiative is not encouraged.

152.	Uses encouragement and praise to get people to perform. |__|__|__|__|__|	Uses fear and punishment to get people to perform.
153.	Doesn't get too involved in the detailed desk work; leaves time to manage. |__|__|__|__|__|	Spends most of her/his time involved in detailed desk work; leaves little time to manage.
154.	Concerned about the whole organisation; not just his/her own patch. |__|__|__|__|__|	Narrow view of the organisation; concerned only about his/her own patch.
155.	Will admit failures and mistakes and discuss them openly. |__|__|__|__|__|	Reluctant to admit failures and mistakes. Blames outside factors.
156.	Doesn't give sufficient feedback to staff about work performance. |__|__|__|__|__|	Provides regular feedback to staff about work performance.
157.	Not involved with staff; distances her/himself from the rest of the group. |__|__|__|__|__|	Involved with staff; mixes with the rest of the group.
158.	Tends not to front up to senior management. Agrees even when she/he feels management is wrong. |__|__|__|__|__|	Will front up to senior management. Will tell them what she/he feels.
159.	Has few work-related contacts in the community. |__|__|__|__|__|	Has a big network of community contacts.
160.	Emphasises the boss/ subordinate distinction when talking to staff. |__|__|__|__|__|	Talks on equal terms with staff.
161.	Approachable and friendly. |__|__|__|__|__|	Unapproachable.
162.	Bounces back quickly if knocked back. |__|__|__|__|__|	Feels badly when knocked back. Takes a long time to bounce back.
163.	Will admit if he/she doesn't know the answer. |__|__|__|__|__|	Will bluff if she/he doesn't know the answer.
164.	Up with the play; aware of what's going on in his/her unit. |__|__|__|__|__|	Not up with the play; unaware of what's going on in his/her unit.

165. Persistent. Will see a difficult task through.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gives in easily. Defeatist.
166. Has little contact with clients.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Maintains close contact with clients.
167. Highlights the negative aspects of staff performance.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Highlights the positive aspects of staff performance.
168. Holds few staff meetings to communicate new information.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Holds regular staff meetings to communicate new information.
169. Tends to accept the credit for success personally.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Passes credit for successes on to the staff.
170. Seen infrequently by staff; less visible.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Visible. Walks the floor and spends time with staff.

Finally, compared with all other managers you know, how would you rate this manager's effectiveness overall?

Check one.

Below Average Bottom 10%	Average	Above Average	Very Good	Superior Top 10%
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

PART TWO

MOST EFFECTIVE MANAGER

Management Level and Title: _____

(Please do not write name)

1.	Insists on high performance standards from staff.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Sometimes lets substandard work through.
2.	Maintains a high standard of housekeeping; keeps work area tidy.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Sloppy in housekeeping; maintains an untidy work area.
3.	Has natural leadership ability and takes command easily.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Lacks natural leadership ability an is reluctant to take command.
4.	Has a realistic view of his/her own ability.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has an urealistic view of his/her own ability.
5.	Looks for new approaches, ideas and opportunities.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Satisfied with the status quo.
6.	Will not back down when wrong or backs down with bad grace.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Will back down gracefully when wrong. wrong.
7.	Tends to buckle in an argument.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Sticks to what she/he believes in.
8.	Poor listener; discourages discussion.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Listens well and encourages discussion.
9.	Little basic education and/or training; self-taught.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Strong formal education and/or training; has a trained mind.
10.	Slow learner.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Picks things up quickly.
11.	Willing to learn.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Unwilling to learn.
12.	Makes careful decisions backed by evidence; thinks before acting.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Makes hasty decisions and ignores information; acts before thinking.
13.	Puts in extra time and effort when required.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Puts in the minimum time and effort required.
14.	Encourages staff's participation in decision making; asks and suggests.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Autocratic approach to decision-making; tells and demands.
15.	Has a high level of drive and ambition.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Lacks drive and ambition.
16.	Goes to pieces under pressure and gets priorities mixed.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Remains calm and maintains priorities under pressure.

17.	Poor team leader.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Team-oriented and keeps their team together.
18.	Plays favourites or picks on staff he/she doesn't like.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Treats everybody the same even those he/she has problems with.
19.	Doesn't get too involved with staff. Able to exercise authority.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Too much "one of the boys" to exercise authority.
20.	Lacks respect, goodwill and support from his/her staff.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has the respect, goodwill and support of his/her staff.
21.	Supports and backs up her/his staff; brings out the best in them.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Criticises and complains about her/ his staff; brings out the worst in them.
22.	Delegates well and involves others.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Does not delegate enough. Tries to do too much him/herself.
23.	Works alongside his/her staff when necessary (e.g., when overworked or having difficulty).	|__|__|__|__|__|	Reluctant to pitch in and help.
24.	Buffers and protects her/his subordinates from outside pressures.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Passes outside pressure to her/his subordinates
25.	Puts him/herself out to help others.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Reluctant to help others.
26.	Does not follow-up or check on work once delegated.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Follows-up and checks on work he/she has assigned.
27.	Keeps his/her knowledge and experience to him/herself.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Happy to share his/her knowledge and experience with others.
28.	Has little respect or confidence in his/her staff.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Respects the abilities of his/her staff.
29.	Keeps her/his staff in the dark.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Keeps her/his staff informed.
30.	Delivers reprimands in private.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Reprimands people in public.
31.	Recognises and rewards good work.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Doesn't give sufficient recognition or reward for good work.

32.	Sensitive to the feelings of staff	|__|__|__|__|__|	Insensitive and blinded to the problems of staff.
33.	Fronts up to problems; assumes responsibility if things go wrong.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Makes excuses for problems; looks for a scapegoat.
34.	Observant; aware of the skills and potential of his/her staff.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Unobservant; doesn't recognise the skills and potential of his/ staff.
35.	Sells ideas well; able to make others enthusiastic.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Unable to sell ideas; turns others off.
36.	Devious and does not give straight answers.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Straightforward and honest.
37.	Hard to talk to and has difficulty relating to people.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Easy conversationalist and mixes easily with people.
38.	Does not define duties and responsibilities clearly enough.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Defines duties and responsibilities clearly.
39.	Goes behind other peoples' backs.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Uses open channels of communication.
40.	Fixes problems him/ herself rather than training others.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Takes time to train others.
41.	Always available when needed.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Often hard to find when needed.
42.	Reliable; keeps his/her promises.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Unreliable; makes vacant promises.
43.	Does not ask people to do things they will not do themselves; leads by example.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Asks staff to do things which he/she cannot or will not do; leads by direction.
44.	Ensures that people are trained in a wide range of skills.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Allows him/herself to become too dependent on a few subordinates.
45.	Accepts criticism well.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Takes criticism personally.
46.	Methods and production oriented.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Results and customer oriented.
47.	Breaks confidences.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Keeps confidences.

48.	Spends too much time out of circulation; gets out of touch.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Moves around and keeps an eye on things.
49.	Backs away from tough decisions.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Takes tough decisions.
50.	Moody and temperamental.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Stable temperament.
51.	Has a broad understanding of different areas of the company and their needs.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Cannot see past his/her own area nor understands others' needs.
52.	Encourages and supports staff with problems.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has a low tolerance for staff with problems.
53.	Good sense of humour.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Takes him/herself too seriously.
54.	Self-controlled and disciplined.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Lacks self-control; undisciplined.
55.	Outspoken.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Quiet.
56.	Feels insecure in her/his position.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Feels secure in her/his position.
57.	Knows few of the jobs under his/her control. His/her staff are better informed about the work than he/she is.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Can do most of the jobs under his/her control. His/her staff can't "pull the wool over his/her eyes".
58.	Poor at planning, organising and scheduling work.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Good at planning, organising and scheduling work.
59.	Theoretical in her/his approach; rather impractical.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Down to earth and practical
60.	Has difficulty in breaking from his/ her old job.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Able to leave his/her old job behind.
61.	Has strong technical knowledge in his/her area; keeps up to date with technical matters.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has limited technical knowledge in his/her area; gets out of date on technical matters.
62.	Copes with routine; sticks with monotonous jobs.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Avoids routine and systems; easily bored.
63.	Does not allow his/her work and private life to interfere with one another.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Allows his/her work and private life to interfere with one another.

64.	Works for the good of the department.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Runs the department down.
65.	Flexible; will bend the rules if it will get the job done better.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Inflexible; won't bend the rules even if following them rigidly causes inefficiency.
66.	A poor record-keeper; forgets and loses things.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Good record-keeper; writes things down and knows where to find them.
67.	Shows little initiative and waits for work to come to him/her.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Self-starter. Shows initiative and looks for extra work.
68.	Gets bogged down in detail; loses the "big picture".	|__|__|__|__|__|	Avoids getting bogged down in detail; maintains the "big picture".
69.	Ineffective in handling multi-cultural issues.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Effective in handling multicultural issues.
70.	Not prepared to assume responsibility for decisions.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Prepared to assume responsibility for decisions.
71.	Good sense of priorities and concentrates on the task in hand.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Little sense of priorities and easily sidetracked.
72.	Looks ahead and anticipates problems.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Lives from assignment to assignment; fails to anticipate problems.
73.	Maintains contact with other managers.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Avoids contact with other managers.
74.	Stands back from the work to get an objective view.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Too close to the work to be objective.
75.	Will negotiate with superior for realistic budgets and targets.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Accepts targets and budgets without question.
76.	Poor at balancing work; concentrates on one thing to the exclusion of others.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Able to balance the competing demands of work.
77.	Supervises too closely.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gives people room to make their own decisions.

78.	Lacks a broad vision; shows narrow judgement in his/her decisions.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has a broad vision of the enterprise which helps to guide his/her decisions.
79.	Unable to present ideas systematically and logically. Cannot explain complex issues in practical terms.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Presents ideas clearly and logically. Able to explain complex issues in practical terms.
80.	A technical specialist rather than a manager.	|__|__|__|__|__|	A manager rather than a technical specialist.
81.	Thinks each problem through carefully; doesn't rely too much on past experience.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Fails to think problems through; relies too much on past experience.
82.	Able to handle several problems at once.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Unable to tackle more than one problem at a time.
83.	Good understanding of financial matters.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Little understanding of financial matters.
84.	Recognises when she/he is in difficulty; seeks help or renegotiates targets.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Doesn't know when she/ he is out of her/his depth; leaves it too late seeking help.
85.	Tackles unpleasant but necessary tasks.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Avoids tackling unpleasant tasks.
86.	Disorganised - has difficulty finding answers to even routine enquiries.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Knows where to look for the answers to questions; has the answers at his/her fingertips.
87.	Needs to have goals set for him/her. Doesn't really know where he/she is going.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Able to set own goals and work towards them. Knows where he/she is going.
88.	Resists new ideas.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Accepts new ideas.
89.	Lacks conceptual skills. Cannot imagine the implications of new developments.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has good conceptual skills. Can visualise the implications of new developments.
90.	Repeats mistakes.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Learns from mistakes.
91.	Has a good understanding of overall corporate objectives.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has little appreciation of over-all corporate objectives.

92.	Optimistic, positive outlook.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Pessimistic, negative outlook.
93.	Has family support.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Lacks family support.
94.	Never lets work get on top of him/her.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gets weighed down worrying about work.
95.	Appears confident. Has bearing and presence.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Lacks self-confidence and bearing.
96.	Pays little attention to detail. Has a "broad brush" approach.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Pays good attention to detail.
97.	Too easily persuaded by others' arguments.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Listens to others but keeps an open mind.
98.	Poor at accepting and implementing decisions which have gone against him/her.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Is able to accept and implement decisions which have gone against him/her.
99.	Does not question well, and accepts things at face value.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Questions effectively and gets to the truth.
100.	Poor at negotiating.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Good at "wheeling and and dealing"; a good negotiator.
101.	Makes firm decisions and doesn't look back.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Constantly questions past decisions.
102.	A great capacity for work.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Limited capacity for work.
103.	Allocates time effectively. Methodical.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Does not allocate time well. Less methodical.
104.	Shows good performance against targets and deadlines.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Poor performer against target. Misses important deadlines.
105.	Future-oriented; looks ahead and thinks in the long term.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Can't visualise the future. Thinks in the short-term.
106.	Finds reasons why things can't be done.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Willing to try. Looks for ways to make things happen.
107.	Loses sight of what is important.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Able to keep sight of the "bottom line".
108.	Lets things ride.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has a sense of urgency; Pushes for results.

109.	Confused if has to deal with too much information.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Can sort through a mass of information and reach appropriate conclusions.
110.	Uncreative. Rarely comes up with ideas.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Creative thinker. Has more ideas than others.
111.	Concerned with getting the job done.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Concerned with impressing people.
112.	Gathers the critical information. Minimises paperwork.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gathers too much information. Wages a paper war.
113.	Gets to the bottom of problems and fixes the basic cause.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Crisis manager. Fights fires and doesn't fix the basic cause.
114.	Thrives on change and challenge.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Avoids change and challenge.
115.	Pursues objectives patiently.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Impatient - tries to do too much at once.
116.	Maintainer of existing services.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Able to start new operations; an entre-preneur.
117.	Doesn't train successors. Only he/she knows his/her job.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Grooms successors. Insists that others know his/her job.
118.	Destructive and aggressive in criticism.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gives constructive feedback. Able to criticise without putting people down.
119.	Tends to feel inferior to competent subordinates.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gathers competent people around him/her.
120.	Holds grudges.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Doesn't hold grudges.
121.	Able to work without supervision.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Needs supervision and guidance.
122.	Decisive.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Indecisive.
123.	Flexible and easy to reason with.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Rigid and closed-minded.
124.	Uses information she/he gathers efficiently.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gathers information but doesn't use it efficiently.
125.	Shows pride in work.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Lacks pride in work.

126.	Clashes with other managers.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Cooperates with other managers.
127.	Spends too much time on one area to the detriment of others.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Spends appropriate time on all the areas under his/her administration.
128.	Her/his heart is not in the job; slap-happy and and unconscientious.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Wants to do the job well; has enthusiasm for the job.
129.	Won't push staff interests to senior management. Won't fight on behalf of staff.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Prepared to stand up to senior management and fight on behalf of/ staff.
130.	Doesn't handle pressure and stress well.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Able to handle pressure and stress.
131.	Doesn't feel she/he has to defend her/his right to be in charge.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Always defending her/ his right to be in charge.
132.	Does his/her fair share of the work. Doesn't delegate unfairly.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Delegates work he/she should be doing him/ herself.
133.	Consults with staff before introducing changes.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Imposes changes without consulting staff.
134.	Has a clear idea of the the results he/she wants to achieve.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Little idea of what he/ she is trying to achieve.
135.	Able to see the complexities of issues and problems.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has a black and white mentality. Can't see the complexities of issues and problems.
136.	Doesn't really manage; "just another worker".	|__|__|__|__|__|	Actively manages. Not "just another worker".
137.	Doesn't stick to an agenda in meetings. Doesn't give enough structure or direction to meetings.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Sticks to an agenda in meetings. Allows for interaction but gives direction and structure to meetings.
138.	Only approaches staff when things are not not to her/his liking.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Regularly approaches staff to see how they are getting on.

139. Won't listen to staff with different views.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Allows staff with different views to argue their case. Listens to them.
140. Deadens staff enthusiasm. Not inspirational.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Makes staff enthusiastic. Inspirational.
141. Interested in developing staff as individuals.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Little interest in developing staff as individuals.
142. Concerned about the overall work effectiveness of staff.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Nitpicks over minor things having little impact on the overall work effectiveness of staff.
143. Takes into account staff workloads and abilities before delegating.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Doesn't take into account staff work-loads and abilities before delegating.
144. Will fight behind the scenes for clients.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Will not fight behind the scenes for clients.
145. Defines goals and objectives. Gives his/her unit a clear sense of purpose.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Fails to define goals and objectives. His/ her unit has no clear sense of purpose.
146. Tends not to change ideas and decisions as a response to staff input.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Will change ideas and decisions in response to staff input.
147. Interacts with just a few staff members. Remains remote from the rest.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Interacts with all of the staff.
148. Doesn't get to the root of problems. Waffles.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gets to the root of problems quickly. Incisive.
149. Doesn't get satisfaction from the job. Lacks motivation.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Is involved and motivated by the job. Sees it as a career.
150. Overly dependent on consultation. Unwilling to make a final decision.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Consults but is prepared to make a final decision where necessary.
151. Encourages staff to take initiative.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Staff initiative is not encouraged.

152.	Uses encouragement and praise to get people to perform.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Uses fear and punishment to get people to perform.
153.	Doesn't get too involved in the detailed desk work; leaves time to manage.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Spends most of her/his time involved in detailed desk work; leaves little time to manage.
154.	Concerned about the whole organisation; not just his/her own patch.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Narrow view of the organisation; concerned only about his/her own patch.
155.	Will admit failures and mistakes and discuss them openly.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Reluctant to admit failures and mistakes. Blames outside factors.
156.	Doesn't give sufficient feedback to staff about work performance.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Provides regular feedback to staff about work performance.
157.	Not involved with staff; distances her/himself from the rest of the group.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Involved with staff; mixes with the rest of the group.
158.	Tends not to front up to senior management. Agrees even when she/he feels management is wrong.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Will front up to senior management. Will tell them what she/he feels.
159.	Has few work-related contacts in the community.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Has a big network of community contacts.
160.	Emphasises the boss/ subordinate distinction when talking to staff.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Talks on equal terms with staff.
161.	Approachable and friendly.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Unapproachable.
162.	Bounces back quickly if knocked back.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Feels badly when knocked back. Takes a long time to bounce back.
163.	Will admit if he/she doesn't know the answer.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Will bluff if she/he doesn't know the answer.
164.	Up with the play; aware of what's going on in his/her unit.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Not up with the play; unaware of what's going on in his/her unit.

165.	Persistent. Will see a difficult task through.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Gives in easily. Defeatist.
166.	Has little contact with clients.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Maintains close contact with clients.
167.	Highlights the negative aspects of staff performance.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Highlights the positive aspects of staff performance.
168.	Holds few staff meetings to communicate new information.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Holds regular staff meetings to communicate new information.
169.	Tends to accept the credit for success personally.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Passes credit for successes on to the staff.
170.	Seen infrequently by staff; less visible.	|__|__|__|__|__|	Visible. Walks the floor and spends time with staff.

Finally, compared with all other managers you know, how would you rate this manager's effectiveness overall?

Check one.

Below Average Bottom 10%	Average	Above Average	Very Good	Superior Top 10%
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

APPENDIX THREE

THE CHARACTERISTICS AND BEHAVIOURS OF MOST AND LEAST EFFECTIVE MANAGERS

CHARACTERISTICS AND BEHAVIOURS RELATING TO CONCEPTUAL ABILITY

The scale categories in this area relate primarily to inferred conceptual processes taking place in the *inner world* of the manager. The scale descriptors deal primarily with individual characteristics and their influence on the manager's conceptual abilities. They also make reference to the observed behaviour flowing from these inner processes. All names used in illustrative examples have been changed to protect individual confidentiality.

Goal Setting.

This scale refers to the manager's capacity to establish (through setting goals and objectives) a clear sense of purpose for themselves and their staff.

The effective manager.

Effective managers know where they are going and have a clear idea of the results they are trying to achieve. They are able to set their own goals and work towards them. They define goals and objectives and instill a clear sense of purpose into the units they manage.

The ineffective manager.

Ineffective managers have little idea of where they are going or the results they are trying to achieve. They need to have goals set for them. They fail to define goals and objectives. Consequently their units have no clear sense of purpose.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"We have a clear idea of what results we wanted. We are not too involved in the detail machinery. When we worked together we defined our goals and objectives and gave our staff a sense of purpose and philosophy. We defined the results that we planned to achieve, defined our expectations and people's responsibilities. For example, we wanted to provide a quality service for the public and a quality environment for the staff."

"John has a clear idea of what he's trying to achieve, a clear idea of where he's going. He defines a clear sense of future direction for his staff. In many ways they are transforming objectives. But they are still clear, specific and down to earth."

"He lacks a vision so he tends to deal on day-to-day crisis management. He hasn't established clear goals ... so he's got nothing to aim at. He never establishes in his mind what he wants the end result to be ... so he gets side-tracked."

"Mike didn't have any idea of these issues [goals and objectives]. He just followed the book. It comes down to a technical thing. He was a guy locked into processes. He ignored what his area was trying to achieve. He came up in a time when that was what the public service expectations were."

Innovation

The issue of innovation was important in an organisation which was being changed from top to bottom. Issues of innovation fell into two broad categories. The first dealt with responsiveness to changes being imposed on the manager. Some managers appeared to enjoy the opportunities for change and were responsive to them. Other managers, characterized as *old school* had been socialised in the bureaucratised public service approach and found the changes bewildering. The second

category referred to the ability of the manager to use initiative and to be change agents and innovators in their own right.

The effective manager.

Effective managers have a sense of urgency and are constantly looking for new approaches, ideas and opportunities. They are self-starters who show initiative and look for extra work. They thrive on change and challenge and accept new ideas. They are entrepreneurial by nature and are able to start up new operations. They are willing to try new approaches and look for ways to make things happen. They pick things up quickly. They are creative thinkers who have more ideas than most other people.

The ineffective manager.

Ineffective managers are satisfied with the status quo and tend to let things ride. They show little initiative and wait for work to come to them. They avoid change and challenge and resist new ideas. They are maintainers of existing services rather than entrepreneurs and find reasons why things can't be done. They are uncreative, rarely coming up with new ideas and resisting the new ideas of others.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"They are not averse to change, they're not resistant. They will look ahead and look at the pros and cons. They are innovative. They come up with new concepts of management, new approaches. They try to implement new management approaches. They are prepared to change with the times. They have the flexibility to change direction."

"She has lots of fresh ideas. She tries to stimulate, tries to change things for the better. She gets things going. She creates a different work environment where people are free to argue and discuss various options without back-stabbing."

"I understand the insignificance of head office directives. I treat them as a bottom line. It's your business to move up from there and to use your own initiative. I use the basic buying contract as a guide. I'll make sure I can beat it, or I'll stay with it. I'm always trying to do better, to be constantly innovative. Ted will spend millions, without getting the best deal. He just follows the status quo."

"She's old school in orientation. Her knowledge of the past is more technical. She is not receptive to new ideas. She doesn't make her own moves very quickly or take initiative."

"They are stable, aren't creative, very negative. They pay lip service to change, but it's a "It'll go away" thing. Change is not welcomed. They are comfortable, maintain the status quo."

"They have an all consuming apathy and don't look at fresh ideas. They never look at things questioningly. They just accept. They assume that the shepherd is always correct they don't question it."

Future Orientation

This scale category deals with the manager's ability to anticipate and respond to future problems and opportunities.

<u>The effective manager.</u>

Effective managers are future orientated and can look ahead and think in the long term. They have good conceptual skills and can visualise the implications of new developments. They can anticipate problems and will negotiate with superiors for realistic targets and budgets.

<u>The ineffective manager.</u>

Ineffective managers live from assignment to assignment. They think in the short term and cannot visualise the future. They

lack conceptual skills and cannot imagine the implications of new developments. They fail to anticipate problems and accept targets and budgets without question.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"An ability to think far down the tunnel is a major criterion of future directors. He is a person that can anticipate and perceive things better than most ... You've got to look way down the line and understand the implications."

"They are able to think ahead, to anticipate requirements. "

"They care about their staff and people. It comes back to dealing with problems before they occur, being proactive. They spend time with their staff, they listen, they pick up indicators that things are not quite right. Then they move in before it becomes a big problem."

"She does little forward planning so she's got no easy way to interpret the implications of things. She just falls from puddle to puddle. Every incident becomes a major incident."

"He is a crisis manager. He can't plan ahead...He will react to what comes out, to problems as they arise, or to new directions as they are given. He waits for direction.

Overview.

The overview dimension, as discussed here, bears a strong similarity to the *helicopter quality*, which has been used widely in the training and appraisal activities of Shell Petroleum (Uttley, 1985). It also fits with Barnard's (1956, p.239) "art of sensing the whole" of which he wrote; "A formal and orderly conception of the whole is rarely present, perhaps even rarely possible except to a few men of executive genius, or a few executive organisations the personnel of which is comprehensively sensitive and well integrated."

Overview appears to be a pre-condition to success in a number of areas of management and the interviews indicate a relationship with a number of other scale categories.

<u>The effective manager.</u>

Effective managers avoid getting bogged down in detail and maintain the *big picture*. They stand back, from their work, to get an objective view and have a broad vision of the different areas of the organisation and their needs. They establish an appropriate balance between all the areas under their administration. They maintain contact with other managers and are concerned about the whole organisation, not just their own patch. They are flexible and are willing to bend the rules, if it means getting the job done better. They

are concerned with the overall work effectiveness of staff rather than minor aspects of staff behaviour, that have little effect on work performance.

The ineffective manager.

Ineffective managers get bogged down in detail and lose the big picture. They are too close to the work to be objective and lack a broad vision of the organisation. Consequently, they show a narrow judgment in their decisions. They spend too much time on one area under their administration, to the detriment of other areas. They avoid contact with other managers and cannot see past their own areas, or understand the needs of others. They have a narrow view of the organisation and are concerned only about their "own patch".

They are inflexible and won't bend they rules, even if following them rigidly causes inefficiency. Rather than concentrating on the overall work effectiveness of staff, they nitpick on minor things, which have little impact on work performance.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"They have their fads, but they don't just look at their own area. They don't have a narrow view of their own area. They are aware of the whole Department and the slotting in of sections and divisions. They realise that they have a

responsibility for the whole Department. They don't just think of their own patch."

"These two see the divisions as a team. They maintain a close liaison with other managers and will swap staff between divisions. He wouldn't dream of swapping staff between divisions. He maintains a rigid distinction between accounts and B&P. He's only interested in his own patch."

"They are stuck with their own section and they can't see outside it. They have a selfish view, based on how far they can get for themselves. Their view is not even as wide as the section. They will only do things to help themselves."

"She lacks overview. She is so tied up with the nuts and bolts that she can't see the wood for the trees. For example, in staff training she gets tied up in the detail of why some things should or shouldn't be paid for, rather than with how the training is contributing to overall productivity. Because of this she considers less, when making decisions."

"He nitpicked over stupid things. I lost confidence in him as a person. For example, he dragged me off to the A.D. over crossing my sevens. He would pick it up and make a point of it."

"He is much more insular, has a narrow base and is stale and bureaucratic. He is systems orientated, molding people to fit the system. The system is their dominant reason for being."

"She has a tendency to get bogged down in a philosophical base, versus achieving outcomes. She gets into means, rather than achieving ends. For example, she sees the development of the individual as of prime importance, but the task itself isn't always clearly defined. She has a tendency to look at processes rather than ends."

"A woman with two or three children came in. Her husband had left and she applied for a deserted wife's benefit. He said she had to prove he hadn't contributed in any way. It was bloody nonsense. He would deny people just because it was in the book. He justified his actions on the basis of instruction. He said, "I don't get paid to think"."

"Fred has a procedures orientation, a narrow inflexible approach. He treats the regulations as inflexible and sticks with the system. He loses sight of the original intent and seems unable to understand the real needs of clients."

Managing Versus Operating

This scale refers to the managers' capacity to leave their old technical/specialist jobs behind and adopt a more generalist managerial role. In most cases (particularly at supervisory level) this requires a balancing of past technical roles with the newer *managerial* aspects of the job. This scale becomes

particularly important at the Director level, when the manager is, for the first time, responsible for areas of the organisation outside of their specialist area (see chapter seven for further discussion).

The effective manager.

Effective managers are able to leave their old specialist/technical roles behind and adopt a more managerial approach. They don't get too involved in the detailed technical desk work and leave time to manage. They are seen as managers rather than "just another worker".

The ineffective manager.

Ineffective managers have difficulty breaking from their old jobs into a more generalist management role. They spend most of their time involved in detailed technical desk work and leave little time to manage. They don't really manage and as a consequence, they are seen as "just another worker".

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"These two pushed technical aspects but made sure that everything was OK with the staff."

"She was so tied up in technical aspects that she lost sight of what the job was about. It's half work and half staff management."

"He had been a very good technician and was promoted to management...He never quite adapted to the changed expectations and wound down. He decided he would do certain menial technical things, but he never thought of himself as a manager. He never came to terms with the fact that he was expected to manage."

"She doesn't like having staff. She finds people work boring. She prefers her own work."

"This person is a carry over of the "big social worker" concept. He was an Assistant Director, but was still carrying out basic social work. He was reluctant to let things go and stayed too close to the clients. He still carried a case load. He was highly motivated towards people, but avoided management."

"She has an endless list of personal clients. It gets out of hand. She ends up running around and doing what others are paid to do, instead of managing the office."

Stress Management

At the time of the study the Department was going through a period of substantial change, stimulated by government restructuring and demands for greater efficiency and rising unemployment. These changes generated increased demands on skills and services, with little by way of increased resources. It is not surprising therefore, that a number of respondents identified stress as an important issue.

The attitude of the individual's own manager also appeared to be a significant factor in their capacity to cope with stress. This was particularly important to the more junior non-supervisory respondents. Supervisory support of respondents at this level seemed to relate strongly to levels of experienced stress.

The Effective Manager.

Effective managers are able to handle stress. They remain calm and maintain priorities under pressure.

The Ineffective Manager.

Ineffective managers don't handle stress well. They go to pieces under pressure and get their priorities mixed.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"The strain at times is intolerable. Too much stress and overload. Some managers cope by just switching off. I use my networks to maintain myself. The ability to cope with stress is critical."

"She's burntout. I suspect she started with lots of practical common sense orientation, but she's shell-shocked by a never ending run of crisis after crisis. She's never developed strategies to deal with it."

"I get headaches and take disprin...It's hard to sleep at night. I can't talk when I get home because I'm too wound up. I wake up at night, worrying about a file. I cry at home or in the toilets. Most of the stress comes from the bosses. They harass and bully. They put the screws on people they don't like. They make petty rules. We get treated like kids."

"He suffers from stress. The staff see him get worked up and they get scared of him. He gets a bit hot tempered occasionally and it tends to make the staff stay away. By looking at him, his staff can see he's frustrated and unhappy. He explodes occasionally. The stress comes because he can't

get the team running the way he wants. He takes it personally, bottles it up."

"The pressure is always on for decisions to be made three days ago. The staff who have to make the decision often don't know how, yet they are often too scared to approach him. Therefore, they hold on till there is someone at the desk, till it's too late. Then, rather than accept the facts of the staff's submission he reads them again. He doesn't trust staff and wastes time checking. That adds to the stress."

Work Capacity

This scale refers to the manager's work motivation, capacity and application. It also involves the performance standards expected from the manager's staff. The interviews highlight the role of the manager's organisational experience in determining the level of work motivation.

<u>The Effective Manager.</u>

Effective managers have a high level of drive and ambition and are involved in and motivated by their jobs. They have a great enthusiasm and capacity for work. They are able to work without supervision and insist on high performance standards from their staff. They do not allow their work and private lives to interfere with one another and will put in extra time

and effort when required. They are persistent enough to see a difficult task through and disciplined enough to stick with routine monotonous jobs.

The Ineffective Manager.

Ineffective managers lack drive and ambition and get little satisfaction from their jobs. Their hearts are not really in their jobs and they they are slap happy and unconscientious. They have a limited capacity for work. They need supervision and guidance and sometimes allow their staff to get away with substandard work. They allow their work and private lives to interfere with each other. They put in the minimum time and effort required. They take a defeatist attitude with difficult jobs and give in easily. They avoid routine and systems and are easily bored.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"These two will be working till the day they leave. Neither has had a serious knock back in their careers. Both have questioned the Department, but have decided that they will stick with it. If things got bad, they would seek work elsewhere."

"We are more career orientated. We want to be Directors. We have a greater vision. We've still far to go. We work very much as a team."

"He's about sixty odd, due to retire later this year. He's been in his current grade for years. He peaked sometime ago."

"She is in the later stage of her career. She doesn't see any future. A bit tired. She's had little encouragement."

"He doesn't get satisfaction from the job. He's not motivated. This is not his career by choice. He can't get another job elsewhere."

"They've both been in the Department for years. They're almost institutionalized, they would be hopeless out of the Department. They've been here for years. They're all lazy, lethargic. They just plod through the work. They have no aim, they're not going anywhere. They're just going to 105. Things never change with them."

Assertiveness

This scale relates to the managers' confidence in the role and their willingness and/or ability to front up to risky, difficult or unpleasant situations. It implies a drive toward leadership and is in line with Kotter's (1988) *motivation*

category. The interviews indicate that one of the dominant reasons for lack of managerial assertiveness was a desire to "cover their backsides" in an organisation that has not traditionally encouraged personal initiative and risk. Lack of assertion also stems from other causes, for example, lack of confidence in the position and lack of technical knowledge.

The Effective Manager.

Effective managers have a natural leadership ability and take command easily. They feel secure in their positions and appear confident. They have a bearing and presence. They will tackle unpleasant but necessary tasks and take tough decisions. They are prepared to assume responsibility for their decisions if things go wrong. They are decisive, making firm decisions and not looking back. They stick to what they believe in and will front up to senior management and tell them what they think. They will listen to other people's views but are prepared to make a final decision when necessary.

The Ineffective Manager.

Ineffective managers lack natural leadership ability and are reluctant to take command. They feel insecure in their positions and lack self confidence and bearing. They avoid unpleasant tasks and back away from tough decisions. They are

not prepared to assume responsibility for their decisions and make excuses and look for scapegoats when things go wrong. They are indecisive and constantly question their past decisions. They tend to buckle in an argument and are too easily persuaded by other people's opinions. They are overly dependent on consultation and are unwilling to make a final decision. They tend not to front up to senior management and will agree with them, even when they feel they are wrong.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"They are both particularly confident. They are prepared to make big decisions, get behind them and go with it. It gives senior staff the confidence to give them big tasks. Tane would fall apart under these tasks. It comes back to a confidence thing."

"She pushed the paper work through. She took a lot of shortcuts which I thought would create problems. But she was always prepared to take responsibility for it. She is fully accountable for what she does and is prepared to accept the risk of failure."

"They tried hard to get good conditions for their staff and clients. They believe in that. They would never take no for an answer. They were never bloody minded, but logically argued. They don't take it lying down."

"She doesn't project her personality. You don't feel that she's in charge. It would make no difference if she weren't there. You wouldn't know anyway. She is very quiet."

"He's frightened that he's going to be asked to justify what he does. He hasn't really got all the technical information at his finger tips. He's frightened of upsetting the system. He hasn't got the courage of his convictions...He would be careful what he said, in case it affected his promotion chances. The others are brave. If the crunch comes they will stand up and say what they think...He will have very little to say."

"She is highly sensitive to social change but has a tendency to allow unstructured critical responses to it. For example, she allowed one of her staff to take precipitate industrial action, which was badly researched and without any consideration for the total organisation. He would expect his boss to take control. The D.G. [Director General] threatened to fire the bloody lot of them. These others would be prepared to take control. They would have waved a big stick."

Prioritising.

This scale relates to the balancing of priorities and the focusing of managerial effort.

The effective manager.

Effective managers have a good sense of priorities and concentrate on the task at hand. They are able to balance competing work demands and keep sight of the *bottom line*. They gather only the critical information, minimizing paper work and using information efficiently. They pursue objectives patiently and show good performance against targets and deadlines.

The ineffective manager.

Ineffective managers have little sense of priorities and are easily sidetracked. They are poor at balancing their work, concentrating on one thing to the exclusion of others. They gather too much information and lose sight of what is important. They are impatient and try to do too much at once. They perform poorly against targets and miss important deadlines.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"They maintain a balance. They fit their priorities closely within a pattern of service. They are able to maintain key areas and maintain a balance of priorities."

"They would address personal issues, but they managed to keep up as well. They were able to organise priorities. They would say we must do it. They sacrificed some things to achieve their priorities."

"They are perfectionists in relation to the wrong things. Complete perfection is unattainable. The costs are too great in terms of the reward. They don't weigh up the costs/benefits."

"He worked flat out. Did a lot of work, but tried to complete too much. His input didn't match the output. He froze up under pressure and got too bogged down in detail. He put too much time into one item. He overkilled it and took too long. He couldn't sort out priorities. His setting of priorities was bad. So he had a stack of three-quarter completed tasks."

Problem Solving.

This scale is concerned with the managers' ability to get to the heart of complex problems and fix their basic causes. It also touches on managers' awareness of personal strengths and weaknesses and their ability to learn from mistakes.

The effective manager.

Effective managers are incisive. They have an ability to think issues through carefully and get to the root of problems. They fix basic causes, rather than resolving short term crises. They can sort through a mass of information and reach appropriate conclusions. They make careful decisions, backed by evidence and are able to see the complexities of issues and problems. They recognise quickly when they are in difficulty and either seek help or renegotiate targets. They have a realistic view of their own ability and learn from their mistakes. They present their ideas clearly and logically and can explain complex issues in practical terms. They are effective in problem solving meetings, allowing for interaction but providing structure and direction.

The ineffective manager.

Ineffective managers fail to think issues through carefully. Consequently, they don't get to the root of problems. They are crisis managers, fighting fires without fixing the basic causes. They get confused if they have to deal with too much information. They make hasty decisions and ignore important information, acting before they think. They have a black and white mentality and can't see the complexities of issues and problems. They don't know when they are out of their depth

and leave it too late in seeking help. They have an unrealistic view of their own ability and repeat their mistakes. They are unable to present their ideas systematically and logically and cannot explain complex issues in practical terms. They don't stick to the agenda, or provide enough structure or direction, in meetings.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"He's got an eye for the key important things. He gets right to the heart of problems. Thinks in broad concepts. Hopeless on details, close to a genius."

"They are able to see the shades of grey. They are able to see the complexities of issues."

"They take an incisive approach and get to the root of the problem quickly...In making a decision they keep to the essence of the thing. They get to the heart of things and respond to those points. They seem able to take a step back. Of course their problems are easier to identify. They combine both heart and head and respond to needs not wants in relation to available resources."

"She is primarily humanitarian in approach, merely responds to people's wants. She doesn't put it in perspective, responds with the heart and puts herself in the poo. It's the head

that puts it in perspective. She makes a reactive unstructured response. She waffles and doesn't get to the heart of the problem. Her problems are more complex than the others."

Personal Organisation.

This scale category is concerned with the level of organisation of the manager. It concerns time management, planning and the general organisation of files, papers, records and materials. It also touches on personal characteristics, such as attention to detail and self control.

The Effective Manager.

Effective managers allocate their time effectively and are good at planning, organising and scheduling work. They maintain a high standard of housekeeping and keep their work areas tidy. They know where to look for the answers to questions and have the answers at their finger tips. They are good record keepers, writing things down and knowing where to look for answers to questions. They pay good attention to detail and are self controlled, disciplined and methodical.

The Ineffective Manager.

Ineffective managers do not allocate their time well and are poor at planning, organising and scheduling work. They are sloppy in their housekeeping and have untidy work areas. They are disorganised and have difficulty finding answers even to routine enquires. They are poor record keepers, forgetting and losing things. They pay little attention to detail and lack self control and discipline. Their approach is *broad-brushed* and unmethodical.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"They both have very busy jobs but they are able to organise themselves to achieve and complete tasks...They are very up to date with their work manuals, systems and circulars. They can find them and know where to look."

"They are very well organised and are conscious of the need to make decisions quickly. They meet deadlines and keep their desks up to date. Nothing is put aside, they decide quickly."
"He's only average at organising himself. He forgets things. He collects papers but doesn't get into organising very often."

"He does have a high volume, busy job but he can never seem to organise himself to get the things I ask him done, even though he works flat out."

"He's not inclined to do other peoples work because he isn't well enough organised to do it. He doesn't organise. He doesn't take time to sit down and look at the operation as a whole. He gets bogged down in detail, therefore he's not able to listen to the staff. He doesn't have the time."

CHARACTERISTICS AND BEHAVIOURS RELATING TO INTERPERSONAL ABILITY

The scale categories in this area relate primarily to observed interactions with other people, in the *external world* of the manager. The scale descriptors deal primarily with behaviour although there is also reference to the underlying characteristics that influence those behaviours.

Delegation and Training.

This scale refers to the manager's use and development of staff through delegation and training.

<u>The effective manager.</u>

Effective managers are observant and are aware of the skills and potential of their staff. They delegate well and involve

others. They define delegated duties and responsibilities clearly and follow-up and check on work that has been assigned. They do their fair share of work and don't delegate unfairly. They take into account staff workloads before delegating. They are happy to share their knowledge and experience and take time to ensure that staff are trained in a wide range of skills. They groom successors and insist that others know their jobs.

The ineffective manager.

Ineffective managers are unobservant and don't recognise or respect the skills and potential of their staff. They don't delegate enough and try to do too much themselves. They don't define delegated duties and responsibilities clearly and do not follow up or check on work they have delegated. They delegate work that they should be doing themselves and don't take staff workloads into account. They keep their knowledge and experience to themselves. They fix problems themselves, rather than training others and become too dependent on a few key subordinates. They don't train successors and consequently only they know their jobs.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"They delegate and use delegation to train. They give you an idea of why you are doing it."

"He allows me to manage until he sees I'm incompetent to do so. I accept that my staff will do things differently from me but I look at the results, so I'm not concerned. For example, Peter's office is totally disorganised yet the results are great. He gets things done and his staff like him. But the way he works horrifies me."

"Robin is a terrible delegator. He undermines his staff. He's afraid to give away power because he feels threatened. He hangs on to things so that they never get done. He has a finger in every pie, but is not dynamic enough to do it all. He's inclined to give staff a job and follow-up and interfere too much."

"Rather than train he did the job himself. His mistake was that if he had shown us how to do the job it would have been OK the next time."

"She doesn't delegate well. She doesn't say "You'll have to do this because of this", its like a guessing game. The staff don't learn from it."

Consultation.

This scale is concerned with the manager's willingness to consult and respond to the input of the staff. It also

touches on the manager's communication of information to the staff.

The effective manager.

Effective managers are flexible and easy to reason with. They encourage staff participation in decision making. They consult with staff before introducing changes and will change ideas and decisions in response to staff input. They listen well and encourage discussion. They are willing to learn, accepting criticism well and backing down gracefully when wrong. They hold regular meetings, to communicate new information and keep their staff well informed. Staff initiative is encouraged and staff are given room to make their own decisions.

The ineffective manager.

Ineffective managers are rigid and closed minded and take an autocratic approach to decision making. They impose changes without consulting staff and tend not to change ideas and decisions in response to staff input. They are poor listeners and discourage discussion. They are unwilling to learn and take criticism personally. They will not back down when wrong or back down with bad grace. They hold few meetings to communicate new information and keep their staff in the dark.

They supervise too closely and do not encourage staff initiative.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"They take a board of directors approach ...put a lot of emphasis on a teamwork approach. They make available the opportunity for everyone to make a contribution...They are prepared to make adjustments if necessary. They are open to being influenced and argued with."

"When I first came here...the place was the pits, terrible. I decided the staff had to know all of it. I got them to sit down with senior staff and say how can we improve. I walked through the office, some of them were in tears. I went home and I thought, "What can I do?" I decided to feed it all back to each section and I asked them what can we do about it. Even the basic grades had ideas. We shared things...It gradually lifted."

"I try to keep my staff informed through meetings and notes. I open things up for discussion throughout the office. I keep staff informed, involved. We have meetings weekly to inform staff. Any member of the staff is welcome to attend if they...have something to say...We talk to customers to see if we are being successful. I talk to lower level staff to see if they are getting the information I'm imparting."

"He's very set in his ways. If I ask him something and he doesn't agree you can't change him at all. If I disagree he just says "I'm the boss do it this way"."

"Any idea I put forward was dampened. The decision was already made. I would bring my ideas and he would squash them. It knocked the morale for six."

"Ken is very secretive. He is unable to share information or power. He withholds information from staff. There is no transfer of knowledge at all...He with-held information I needed as an A.D. [Assistant Director]. He held masses of information that was critical to my operation."

Feedback

In this scale we explore the manager's approach to performance feedback and the approach taken to get people to perform. The scale is also concerned with the issue of favouritism and the manager's disposition to hold grudges.

<u>The effective manager.</u>

Effective managers respect the abilities of their staff. They regularly approach them to see how they are getting on. They provide regular feedback about work performance and recognise

and reward good work. They highlight the positive aspects of staff performance and use encouragement and praise to get people to perform. When necessary they are able to criticise without putting people down. Staff with different views are allowed to argue their case. They don't hold grudges and treat everyone the same, including those they have had problems with.

The ineffective manager.

Ineffective managers have little respect or confidence in their staff. They only approach them when things are not to their liking. They don't give sufficient feedback about work performance. They highlight the negative aspects of work performance and don't give sufficient recognition or reward for good work. They use fear and punishment to get people to perform. Their criticism is destructive and aggressive and they will not listen to staff with different views. They hold grudges, picking on staff they don't like and playing favourites with others.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"I used praise, rewards and achievement and I created a positive culture. I try to emphasize the positive. I talk to them about the good things. When they get a promotion I do them across the desk. I sign it in front of them and I

congratulate them...I have worked hard to create a positive culture."

"They are interested in my personal development and provide regular feedback. They tell me what's wrong and how to avoid it. They give me positive feedback. A chocolate fish."

"He inspired fear. We had no confidence in being able to approach him. He found fault and belittled you all the time. He tried to reprimand you, find fault. The staff detested him."

"I found I was the lone ranger. I wasn't receiving the guidance I needed. He wasn't interested in giving feedback... I felt an immense frustration every year, with the lack of concrete feedback."

"He would make decisions in pubs with a few mates. He played favourites. A lot of things were discussed in pubs and because I didn't go over, I was out on a limb...He was partial, played favourites, and the morale crashed."

Team Building.

This scale touches on the manager's capacity as a team builder and leader. It explores the level of managerial interaction, involvement with and consequent understanding of the team. It

also explores the example of the manager, in terms of work output, dress, etc and his/her overall impact, in terms of staff respect and enthusiasm.

The effective manager.

Effective managers are team orientated and keep their team together. They talk on equal terms with staff. They are highly visible, moving around and interacting with their staff. Consequently they are up with the play and aware of whats going on in their unit. They support and back up their staff and bring out the best in them. They do not ask people to do things that they will not do themselves. They lead by example in dress and action. Credit for success is given to the staff. Such managers are inspirational, generating enthusiasm, respect, goodwill and support from their staff.

The ineffective manager.

Ineffective managers are poor team leaders. They are seen infrequently and distance themselves from most of their staff. They emphasize the boss/subordinate distinction, when talking to staff. They spend too much time out of circulation and consequently are not in touch with what's going on in their unit. They criticise and complain about their staff and bring out the worst in them. They ask staff to do things that they cannot, or will not, do themselves and set a poor example in

dress and action. They tend to take personal credit for the successes of the team. Their impact is one of deadening enthusiasm and losing the respect, goodwill and support of their staff.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"They don't hide away in a corner. They come out and have a chat, including a bit of social talk. They also ask you how the work is going. It's a really good atmosphere. It's a pleasure to work for them, because they don't build imaginary barriers."

"They get involved with their staff. They know what's going on in their division and have a good rapport. They look, talk and listen...They are part of the team. They mix in with the people, from the grass roots up to their level. They develop the team by mixing in socially, in and out of work."

"She had very little involvement. She didn't know at all what was going on. Her 103 was in total control. She didn't get up to find out."

"He works behind closed doors, has no contact with the staff at all. No meetings, no contact...He sets up a wall around him. Shuts the door and all the time, the staff back off."

"He portrayed a dreadful image. Wore boots to work. His image was terrible. He wore crumpled shirts and had a BO problem. His example was not 100%. He had a drink problem and was inclined to drink in lunchtimes."

"He was the laziest sod I ever met in my bloody life. He was a brick shithouse, a useless Director. He wore the same jacket for twenty years. He stank physically, wore the same shorts all year. He was fat, overweight, obese. He was not a happy man, miserable. Had a low level of concern for other people.

Concern for Others

This scale highlights the manager's concern for other people. It is primarily demonstrated in the manager's behaviour. In particular, approachability, interest in staff development and willingness to help out and "go to bat" for staff and clients with problems.

<u>The effective manager.</u>

Effective managers are prepared to put themselves out to help others. They are interested in developing staff as individuals and are approachable and friendly. They are sensitive to the feelings of staff and encourage, support and if necessary, work alongside those with problems. They buffer

staff from outside pressures and are prepared to stand up to senior management on behalf of both their staff and clients.

The ineffective manager.

Ineffective managers are reluctant to pitch in and help others. They have little interest in developing staff as individuals and are unapproachable. They are insensitive and blinded to the problems of staff and have a low tolerance for those with problems. They pass outside pressures on to their staff and won't fight senior management, either on behalf of their staff or their clients.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"When you approach them they look up and smile. They might say, "Can you hang on a minute", but they will acknowledge your presence."

"You could always approach her. You could always talk to her with personal problems...You could go up and have a chat. It's good, especially if you've got a hundred beneficiaries screaming at you. If you needed a break she would put her pen down and talk to you."

"They are more interested in the career development of staff. They give us opportunities to do different kinds of

work..rotate to different divisions. They advise you on career development. For example, Huia took a personal interest. She encouraged me to do night school. She took me around the area and took a personal interest in me."

"He makes me feel a burden if I have to approach him...Occasionally you will go up and he will grunt a short answer. Sometimes he will basically tell you to go away."

"You would never approach her with a problem. I felt very uncomfortable talking to her. People wouldn't go near her desk. Hardly anybody asked her what to do. There was a general wariness of her, a feeling that we were going to get snapped at or told off. So we asked the 103, or each other."

"Nick was not interested in any way whatsoever in the career development of staff. He only called you in to give you a reprimand. He had no interest at all in my personal career development."

Personality.

This scale is concerned with a number of aspects of the manager's personality. Its most important dimensions impact on the manager's capacity to relate to and influence other people. The interviews indicate a relationship between

personality and a number of other scale categories, notably stress managment, team building and concern for others.

The Effective Manager.

Effective managers have an optimistic, positive outlook and a good sense of humor. They have stable temperaments and never allow their work to get on top of them. They bounce back quickly if they get a knock back. They relate well to people and are good conversationalists. They are down to earth and practical in their approach. They are good negotiators and are able to sell their ideas well and enthuse others.

The Ineffective Manager.

Ineffective managers have a pessimistic, negative outlook and tend to take themselves too seriously. They are moody and temperamental and get weighed down worrying about their work. They take a long time to bounce back from a knock back. They are hard to talk to and have difficulty relating to other people. Their approach is theoretical and rather impractical. They are poor negotiators. They have trouble selling their ideas and tend to turn people off.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"He has a tremendous ability in handling people. He maintains good working relationships with staff, even if he has to

discipline. For example, he once told John Takio to do something, but John wouldn't do it. He told him for three months and John still ignored him. In the end he got the staff together and told him to do it in front of the staff. Nobody carried a grudge with him. He can tell you serious things and laugh. He's very positive about what he does. He carries people with him."

"She's moody and not very patient. It's caused by her personal life. She's paranoid about people liking her, but they don't. We [her staff] all feel tense when she's in a mood. You never know what kind of day it will be."

"She might be having a bad day. She'll walk in and won't even give you the time of day. One day she walked in and rang up her Priest and confessed, right in front of her staff, who were sitting feet from her...You can always tell what kind of mood she's in. If I say the wrong thing I get ignored or get my head bitten off."

"He's subject to outside pressures. If the door's shut you don't go near him. If you do you will get a barrel. The word spreads around. The word gets around and he doesn't get the confidence of the staff. He's tied up in his own little world."

Integrity

This scale concerns itself with the openess, honesty, trustworthiness and reliability of the manager. This involves relationships with staff, peers, superiors and with the organisation as a whole.

The Effective Manager.

Effective managers are straightforward and honest. They use open channels of communication and keep confidences. They are reliable and keep their promises. They will admit if they don't know the answer. They will also admit their mistakes and discuss them openly. They can be trusted to accept and implement decisions which have gone against them. They work for the good of the organisation and don't run it down when talking to others.

The ineffective manager.

Ineffective managers tend to be devious. They go behind people's backs and break confidences. They are unreliable and make vacant promises. They will bluff if they don't know the answers. They are reluctant to admit their failures and mistakes and blame outside factors. They are poor at

accepting and implementing decisions which have gone against them. They run the organisation down when talking to others.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"They are willing to say if they don't know something, or look it up...in the manual. I didn't respect them less. She will try to bluff if she doesn't know something. She'll give you a waffly answer or get it passed on. The file will just disappear."

"I would never confide in her because she talks behind people's backs. She spreads things around and doesn't keep confidences. With these two I can sit down in good faith and say "I think such and such", or "I'm not happy with this". You can trust them with anything. They won't tell anybody else."

"I found out that he [my boss] was getting information from my juniors on how things were running. He would meet with the junior staff without consulting. He went behind my back. He wanted a spy to keep an eye on me. They [the staff] spelled it all out to me."

OTHER CHARACTERISTICS AND BEHAVIOURS

Technical Knowledge

This category refers to the technical knowledge of the manager. That is; specific knowledge of the laws, manuals and procedures that apply to the technical work of the department. Technical knowledge seems to be most important to managers at the 104 supervisory level. Non-supervisory staff seem particularly reliant on the technical guidance of their supervisor. Lack of technical knowledge on the part of the supervisor can create work bottle-necks, slow decision-making and generally decrease the morale of the work unit.

The Effective Manager.

Effective managers have a strong technical knowledge and know most of the jobs under their control. They keep up to date technically and the staff can't "pull the wool over their eyes" on technical matters.

The Ineffective Manager.

Ineffective managers know few of the jobs under their control and have a limited technical knowledge. They get out of date

on technical matters and their staff are better informed about the work than they are.

The following interview examples are illustrative;

"His work knowledge is good. I know I'll get an answer from him. He won't tell me to look in the manual. I can get a decision from him when I'm not sure."

"My boss can help me make quick decisions on the telephone. It makes the work quicker. Things take less time and it gives a good impression to clients."

"They are quietly confident technically...They are quietly confident and bring out the best in their staff. They have a broad background and recent line experience and they are prepared to help staff out if they have a problem."

"He thinks he's quietly confident but people don't have the same respect for him because of his lack of technical skills."

"She doesn't have the technical experience. She's good on basic things...but she lacks expertise. There have been a few personality clashes because of overwork. We are not getting the work through because of a lack of training."

"There's been no time for the necessary training. It's because all of the promotions are new. We've all moved up one and we are still training ourselves. It's getting better as the understanding grows but it puts pressure on everyone."

"He doesn't have the knowledge to make effective decisions. But he still tries to do it straight away instead of saying I'll come back to you. So he collects paper. He lacks the technical knowledge to make a fast decision and fails to get things out to the divisions on time. The others get rid of the paper on their desks quickly. They make decisions."

External Networking

This scale is concerned with the manager's involvement and orientation to clients and work related networks, outside of the organisation.

<u>The Effective Manager</u>

Effective managers have a big network of community contacts and maintain close contacts with clients.

<u>The Ineffective Manager</u>

Ineffective managers have few work related contacts in the community and have little contact with clients.

The following examples are illustrative;

"Tony talks to his customers. He tries to see if we are being successful."

"He understands the original intent of the legislation and targets for the needs of people. He understands the real needs of clients and of people"

"He established a network of contacts, of filters between the Department and the community".

"Harry has a high profile in the community, yet has poor external networks. No filters and no constraints. He has lost sight of the original intent. He is unable to understand the real needs, the real situation of people."

APPENDIX FOUR

PEARSON'S CORRELATION ANALYSIS FOR NINETEEN SCALE VARIABLES

Least Effective Manager Ratings

Correlations:	WORKL	PERSL	TRUSTL	DELTRGL	TEAML	CONCERNL	CONSULTL	GOALL	PORGL	STRESSL	PROBSLVL	PRIORTL	FRONTL	INNVNL	RWDPUNL	MGRWRKL	TECHKNWL	FUTUREL	OVRVEWL
WORKL	1.0000	.4140**	.4973**	.6259**	.5508**	.5933**	.3827**	.6972**	.6700**	.3737**	.6025**	.6072**	.6352**	.6496**	.3926**	.2762**	.5185**	.5709**	.5218**
PERSL	.4140**	1.0000	.6431**	.5923**	.7029**	.6914**	.7127**	.4568**	.4204**	.6712**	.6636**	.6168**	.5582**	.6011**	.6896**	.5076**	.2344**	.5804**	.7383**
TRUSTL	.4973**	.6431**	1.0000	.6340**	.6951**	.6519**	.7175**	.4552**	.5035**	.5041**	.6936**	.6794**	.5039**	.5328**	.7423**	.3084**	.3349**	.5273**	.6543**
DELTRGL	.6259**	.5923**	.6340**	1.0000	.7571**	.7129**	.6371**	.6659**	.6274**	.4758**	.7465**	.7219**	.6324**	.6929**	.6245**	.4520**	.4906**	.6772**	.6799**
TEAML	.5508**	.7029**	.6951**	.7571**	1.0000	.8423**	.7627**	.5237**	.4600**	.5049**	.6957**	.6945**	.5548**	.6582**	.8070**	.4057**	.4678**	.5907**	.7137**
CONCERNL	.5933**	.6914**	.6519**	.7129**	.8423**	1.0000	.7319**	.5079**	.4265**	.4813**	.6437**	.6120**	.5777**	.6453**	.7600**	.3587**	.3549**	.5945**	.6858**
CONSULTL	.3827**	.7127**	.7175**	.6371**	.7627**	.7319**	1.0000	.4049**	.3413**	.4728**	.6358**	.6225**	.4038**	.5742**	.8440**	.4021**	.2250**	.5525**	.7423**
GOALL	.6972**	.4568**	.4552**	.6659**	.5237**	.5079**	.4049**	1.0000	.6858**	.4748**	.7153**	.6682**	.6653**	.7114**	.3849**	.4524**	.4883**	.7309**	.6006**
PORGL	.6700**	.4204**	.5035**	.6274**	.4600**	.4265**	.3413**	.6858**	1.0000	.4490**	.7148**	.7228**	.5830**	.5218**	.3157**	.3146**	.5295**	.5481**	.5126**
STRESSL	.3737**	.6712**	.5041**	.4758**	.5049**	.4813**	.4728**	.4748**	.4490**	1.0000	.6668**	.5878**	.5887**	.5347**	.4303**	.4121**	.3248**	.5144**	.6106**
PROBSLVL	.6025**	.6636**	.6936**	.7465**	.6957**	.6437**	.6358**	.7153**	.7148**	.6668**	1.0000	.8571**	.7256**	.7072**	.5804**	.4872**	.5428**	.7438**	.7888**
PRIORTL	.6072**	.6168**	.6794**	.7219**	.6945**	.6120**	.6225**	.6682**	.7228**	.5878**	.8571**	1.0000	.6428**	.6177**	.5966**	.4505**	.5204**	.6884**	.7369**
FRONTL	.6352**	.5582**	.5039**	.6324**	.5548**	.5777**	.4038**	.6653**	.5830**	.5887**	.7256**	.6428**	1.0000	.6604**	.3678**	.4268**	.4866**	.6681**	.5994**
INNVNL	.6496**	.6011**	.5328**	.6929**	.6582**	.6453**	.5742**	.7114**	.5218**	.5347**	.7072**	.6177**	.6604**	1.0000	.5084**	.5240**	.4298**	.7580**	.7043**
RWDPUNL	.3926**	.6896**	.7423**	.6245**	.8070**	.7600**	.8440**	.3849**	.3157**	.4303**	.5804**	.5966**	.3678**	.5084**	1.0000	.3763**	.2496**	.4793**	.6726**
MGRWRKL	.2762**	.5076**	.3084**	.4520**	.4057**	.3587**	.4021**	.4524**	.3146**	.4121**	.4872**	.4505**	.4268**	.5240**	.3763**	1.0000	.0572	.4862**	.5685**
TECHKNWL	.5185**	.2344**	.3349**	.4906**	.4678**	.3549**	.2250**	.4883**	.5295**	.3248**	.5428**	.5204**	.4866**	.4298**	.2496**	.0572	1.0000	.4408**	.3844**
FUTUREL	.5709**	.5804**	.5273**	.6772**	.5907**	.5945**	.5525**	.7309**	.5481**	.5144**	.7438**	.6884**	.6681**	.7580**	.4793**	.4862**	.4408**	1.0000	.7488**
OVRVEWL	.5218**	.7383**	.6543**	.6799**	.7137**	.6858**	.7423**	.6006**	.5126**	.6106**	.7888**	.7369**	.5994**	.7043**	.6726**	.5685**	.3844**	.7488**	1.0000

Most Effective Manager Ratings

Correlations:	WORKM	PERSM	TRUSTM	DELTRGM	TEAMM	CONCERNM	CONSULTM	GOALM	PORGM	STRESSM	PROBSLVM	PRIORTM	FRONTM	INNVNM	RWDPUNM	MGRWRKM	TECHKNWM	FUTUREM	OVRVEWM
WORKM	1.0000	.4727**	.5848**	.6518**	.4998**	.5259**	.4208**	.6289**	.6695**	.4281**	.7040**	.6795**	.6372**	.5560**	.4570**	.4356**	.4791**	.5458**	.5912**
PERSM	.4727**	1.0000	.7006**	.6063**	.7990**	.7104**	.7392**	.5474**	.4605**	.6132**	.7024**	.6157**	.6656**	.5873**	.7303**	.5327**	.3605**	.5499**	.7124**
TRUSTM	.5848**	.7006**	1.0000	.6781**	.7320**	.6889**	.7201**	.5415**	.5366**	.5064**	.7371**	.6733**	.6062**	.5349**	.7365**	.4938**	.4486**	.5117**	.7060**
DELTRGM	.6518**	.6063**	.6781**	1.0000	.7190**	.6109**	.6395**	.6659**	.6171**	.4641**	.7565**	.6844**	.6476**	.6429**	.6514**	.5599**	.5123**	.5719**	.6840**
TEAMM	.4998**	.7990**	.7320**	.7190**	1.0000	.7561**	.8075**	.5740**	.4760**	.5589**	.7099**	.6310**	.6729**	.5797**	.8316**	.5590**	.4491**	.5065**	.7117**
CONCERNM	.5259**	.7104**	.6889**	.6109**	.7561**	1.0000	.7025**	.4866**	.4018**	.5002**	.6502**	.5959**	.5880**	.4794**	.7297**	.4535**	.3453**	.5042**	.6749**
CONSULTM	.4208**	.7392**	.7201**	.6395**	.8075**	.7025**	1.0000	.5047**	.3904**	.5105**	.6491**	.6240**	.5793**	.5148**	.8114**	.5165**	.3112**	.4650**	.6936**
GOALM	.6289**	.5474**	.5415**	.6659**	.5740**	.4866**	.5047**	1.0000	.5951**	.4913**	.7483**	.6863**	.6648**	.6712**	.5220**	.5697**	.3413**	.6409**	.6643**
PORGM	.6695**	.4605**	.5366**	.6171**	.4760**	.4018**	.3904**	.5951**	1.0000	.4691**	.7058**	.6414**	.5760**	.5653**	.4458**	.4242**	.4686**	.4863**	.5004**
STRESSM	.4281**	.6132**	.5064**	.4641**	.5589**	.5002**	.5105**	.4913**	.4691**	1.0000	.6075**	.5122**	.6239**	.5359**	.5328**	.4518**	.2995**	.4586**	.5526**
PROBSLVM	.7040**	.7024**	.7371**	.7565**	.7099**	.6502**	.6491**	.7483**	.7058**	.6075**	1.0000	.8115**	.7763**	.7444**	.6547**	.6066**	.4944**	.7105**	.7657**
PRIORTM	.6795**	.6157**	.6733**	.6844**	.6310**	.5959**	.6240**	.6863**	.6414**	.5122**	.8115**	1.0000	.6781**	.5979**	.5817**	.4842**	.4512**	.6105**	.7184**
FRONTM	.6372**	.6656**	.6062**	.6476**	.6729**	.5880**	.5793**	.6648**	.5760**	.6239**	.7763**	.6781**	1.0000	.6901**	.5587**	.5712**	.4635**	.6240**	.7157**
INNVNM	.5560**	.5873**	.5349**	.6429**	.5797**	.4794**	.5148**	.6712**	.5653**	.5359**	.7444**	.5979**	.6901**	1.0000	.5239**	.5958**	.3965**	.6323**	.6645**
RWDPUNM	.4570**	.7303**	.7365**	.6514**	.8316**	.7297**	.8114**	.5220**	.4458**	.5328**	.6547**	.5817**	.5587**	.5239**	1.0000	.5026**	.3223**	.4391**	.6419**
MGRWRKM	.4356**	.5327**	.4938**	.5599**	.5590**	.4535**	.5165**	.5697**	.4242**	.4518**	.6066**	.4842**	.5712**	.5958**	.5026**	1.0000	.2320**	.5347**	.6096**
TECHKNWM	.4791**	.3605**	.4486**	.5123**	.4491**	.3453**	.3112**	.3413**	.4686**	.2995**	.4944**	.4512**	.4635**	.3965**	.3223**	.2320**	1.0000	.3367**	.4579**
FUTUREM	.5458**	.5499**	.5117**	.5719**	.5065**	.5042**	.4650**	.6409**	.4863**	.4586**	.7105**	.6105**	.6240**	.6323**	.4391**	.5347**	.3367**	1.0000	.6776**
OVRVEWM	.5912**	.7124**	.7060**	.6840**	.7117**	.6749**	.6936**	.6643**	.5004**	.5526**	.7657**	.7184**	.7157**	.6645**	.6419**	.6096**	.4579**	.6776**	1.0000